The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1898.

The Week.

Spain has ordered her ambassadors in various parts of the world to present to the governments to which they are accredited a memorandum setting forth the long list of concessions made by Spain to the United States. This note will probably be very like the one which Minister Polo left with our Department of State on April 10. It recites the demand after demand made by our Government, to which Spain had acceded. The whole constitutes one of the most brilliant diplomatic victories ever won. President McKinley might have sent an account of it to Congress with pæans of exultation over his immense accomplishment. But, as the Paris *Temps* said, just when his diplomatic success was greatest and most evident, he felt compelled to place himself at the disposal of Congress, with the result, as Mr. Goldwin Smith says, that "the American nation is being hurried into war before the resources of diplomacy are exhausted." It is, indeed, a striking instance of a lost opportunity of diplomacy. Such mysterious failures when the chances of complete success were apparently brightest, make Coleridge's sneer seem almost justified: "Your diplomatic art is stuff!"

The idea that the Spanish, than whom there is no prouder race on earth, would yield what they consider their national honor on demand—and a demand made as insulting as possible—argued a woful lack of knowledge and imagination in those who held it. No doubt our politicians were misled not only by ignorance, but also by what they thought safe precedents. We had sent an ultimatum to Paraguay, and she had surrendered without a shot. We had bullied Chili, and she had complied with our demands. Chili and Paraguay are Spanish by descent; ergo, all you have to do to Spain is to treat her just like Chili and Paraguay. This was, no doubt, a convincing argument in the minds of those gentlemen, totally inexperienced in diplomacy and quite ignorant of Spain, who have led us into war; but it has been dashed to pieces on the hard fact. The speech from the throne at the opening of the Spanish Cortes on April 20 disposed of the final lingering hope of some of the Jingoes that Spain would, at the last moment, ignominiously back down. But that scarcely justifies their now angrily saying that this revelation of Spanish obstinacy and pride shows how futile it was to negotiate at all with such an unreasonable people. It is evident that the wretches never meant to surrender Cuba without a fight, now say our men of oozing valor; therefore, we should have fought them long ago. But if the Spanish had not had patriotism enough to assert themselves as they have done, they would have been too contemptible for even a Jingo to fight. As it is, we are at least assured that our enemy is spirited and tenacious, a foe worthy of respect, and one to subdue whom we shall need to exert ourselves mightily.

The departure of Minister Woodford from Madrid is a fit occasion for saying that, so far as his record has come to the public knowledge, he has proved an excellent representative of our Government in a most difficult, responsible, and embarrassing position. Lacking both experience in diplomacy and knowledge of the Spanish language, he has triumphed over these drawbacks, and his bearing throughout the steadily increasing complications of the last few weeks has been most dignified and creditable. He has been, from first to last, the earnest advocate of a peaceful settlement of the controversy if such a settlement were possible. There will be great curiosity to see the full history of the diplomatic negotiations which have gone on through the American Minister during the last few months, and the final verdict upon his part in them must await such publication; but it may be said now, and it ought to be said, that, so far as appears upon the surface, Gen. Woodford has conducted himself in a manner worthy of high praise.

There is much truth in what Dr. Barth writes in the Berlin *Nation*, that a war between Spain and the United States will be between two governments, not two peoples. There is no personal hatred of the Spaniards by Americans, and we do not believe the Spaniards hate us. Those of them who have lived in this country say they should feel perfectly safe here even in time of war. They go away, not through fear, but because they consider it "good form." The Governor of Florida has declared that no Spaniards need leave that State through dread of not being protected in life and property; he would use the whole power of the State to protect them, if necessary. It is reported from St. Louis that the Spanish Consul in that city advises Spaniards to stay quietly where they are, as he considers them perfectly safe. Of course they are, and so, we believe, would any inoffensive American be in Seville or Santander.

The new Hull army reorganization bill, which passed the House on Saturday, alters the present organization of the army only by adding two more companies and a major, two captains, and four lieutenants to each regiment of infantry. At the end of the war there is to be a relapse to the present antiquated system of having eight manned and two skeleton companies. Beyond this the bill simply places the army upon a war footing by prescribing that each company of cavalry and infantry shall have 100 and 106 men respectively, while the heavy artillery batteries are to consist of 200 men each. In view of the arduous conditions of the warfare we shall wage in Cuba, it would have been no mistake to increase each company to the size of the German and French units of 250 men each, since deaths, disease, and privations rapidly reduce the strength of any company in the field, as all veterans well know. Even in garrison duty it has been a common thing to have fifteen or twenty men out of a troop or company of sixty unable to do duty because of sickness or accidents or necessary detached service. The best that can be said about the proposed increase is that it will prevent us from sending weak battalions, over-officered and erroneously called regiments, to the front to become ineffective in the shortest possible time. The promotions which will ensue in the infantry on the passage of the bill, will advance many captains who have long since passed the age of usefulness as company officers. Indeed, the retirements last week go far to prove, what has been patent to all army observers for many years, that a large number of the higher officers and of the old war-time captains are unfit to stand the hardships of an active campaign. It is safe to say that the Army Register of two years hence will be a surprisingly changed and altered book.

The War Department's call for volunteers issued on Monday is full of surprises. A careful perusal of the list tends to the belief that the assignment of quotas was made by some one utterly unfamiliar with the capabilities and value of the Guards of each individual State, or else by simply drawing lots from a hat. For example, the State of New York has had admittedly for years the best cavalry and light artillery, yet only half its well-trained cavalry and not one of its five light batteries, with their 450 men, have been called for by this order. Gen. Carroll, the Chief of Artillery for this State, points out the astonishing fact that, although California and Maryland have no artillery whatever, they are each required to furnish four batteries. Furthermore, seven States which have no artillery are called upon for sixteen batteries, while twenty-

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six States which possess fifty-one batteries, more or less ready for duty, are not required to furnish a single one! Another glance at this remarkable order shows that although Pennsylvania's Guard comprises three light batteries and three troops of cavalry, she is asked only for infantry and heavy batteries—the latter an unknown branch of the service in that State. Finally, Massachusetts, which has for some time possessed the only militia heavy artillery regiment, is asked to furnish only three heavy batteries, or one-fourth of its force now ready for active service. In view of these facts we must either regard this order as the most careless and slipshod one ever drawn in the emergency of war, or infer the desire of the War Department to obtain the required State quotas without any regard whatever to the existing State troops. The only explanation given by Adjt.-Gen. Corbin is that it is "within the possibilities, even probabilities, of the near future that the [New York] artillery will be very much needed at home." But this by no means explains many other astonishing facts of this momentous order, which continues to call forth vigorous protests on all sides.

We undoubtedly have the right during this war with Spain to capture her merchant vessels on the high seas, but it is contrary to our principles to do so. When we proposed in 1856 to the European Powers that, instead of merely abolishing privateering, the principle should be adopted of exempting all private merchant ships and their cargoes from belligerent seizure on the ocean, it was confidently predicted by some publicists that, by the close of the century, this benign improvement of public law would be assented to by the whole civilized world. This exemption, said John Quincy Adams as Secretary of State, has been an object which the United States have had much at heart ever since they assumed their place among the nations. Mr. Fish in 1870, in an official communication, expressed the hope that our Government might soon be gratified by seeing this principle recognized as another restraining and humanizing influence imposed by modern civilization on the art of war. The following year we agreed by treaty with Italy that, in the event of war between the two countries, the private property of their respective citizens, with the exception of contraband of war, should be exempt from capture on the high seas or elsewhere, unless such vessels attempted to enter a blockaded port. In favor of this doctrine is the recent practice of Austria and Prussia; the former declaring in 1866 that enemy's ships and cargoes should not be captured as long as a like indulgence should be extended by the enemy, and the latter going so far in the war of 1870 as to decree this exemption in favor of French vessels without any condition whatever.

Great Britain has, however, never consented to this new doctrine, and for its refusal it has received the censure of not a few Continental authorities on international law. But Mr. Hall, an eminent English authority on this subject, though maintaining that there is no moral reason for the abandonment of the right of capture, present strong considerations of policy for its abolition. Owing to the dependence of English manufactures on the cheap importation of raw material, and of the English population on foreign food supplies, he insists that the adherence of the British Government to the old rule in respect to capture of private property at sea is of very doubtful wisdom. As commerce progresses, the principles of warfare established in ancient times must necessarily be modified. All peoples are concerned in having international intercourse disturbed as little as possible on such occasions. We of all peoples are most thoroughly committed to the principle that there should be no distinction in time of hostility between immunity on sea and immunity on land of private property. Now is the auspicious time to concert a plan that shall make this principle, for which we have so long and so ably contended, an accepted maxim of maritime law.

The revenue measure introduced by Chairman Dingley is calculated to yield $90,000,000 per year. It puts additional taxes on beer, tobacco, and cigars, and on licenses to sell tobacco. It revives most of the stamp duties of the civil-war period, including legal instruments, stocks, bonds (other than those of the federal, State, or municipal governments), bank checks above $20, telegrams, patent medicines, perfumery, cosmetics, domestic wines and mineral waters, and a tonnage tax on vessels engaged in foreign trade. The bill provides also for a loan or loans not exceeding $500,000,000, by the sale of bonds bearing interest at the rate of 3 per cent. These are to be issued in denominations of $50 and upwards, and are to be first offered as a popular loan. The Secretary of the Treasury is to have authority to borrow money on certificates of indebtedness, bearing interest at 3 per cent., but the amount of certificates outstanding cannot exceed $100,000,000 at any time. The tax features of the bill are scientific. They are much better than we had expected to see. It is a commendable feature of the bill that the taxes will be paid by persons who will know that they pay them. When we have a war, it is desirable that the people should feel its burdens, since it is only in this way that the great mass of the community ever learn how bad a thing war is.

The bonds are to be payable in "coin," but not specifically in gold coin. Probably this is the only kind of bond that would pass the Senate in any case, and the situation is such that something must pass very soon. Under these circumstances the Secretary of the Treasury could hardly withhold his assent to the measure in the form which has been given to it. It has been reported that most of the Democrats, Populists, and Silver Republicans will oppose any bond issue whatever, and Senator Teller is quoted as saying that no such measure can pass the Senate. Here we reach the dead point of danger in home politics. The Senate forced the Government into war. Now if the Senate withholds the means for carrying on the war, pretending that fresh issues of greenbacks will answer every purpose, the country will be not far from ruin. That there was a lurking purpose of this sort behind the Senate's resolution—that there was thus much of method in its madness—we have all along suspected. We hope that our suspicions may not be realized. Possibly Mr. Teller's programme may not command all the votes of the opposition in the Senate, although Senator Jones of Arkansas, chairman of the Democratic national committee, is reported to be against any issue of bonds, and in favor of an income tax instead. The latter measure is possible only by an amendment of the Constitution. Such an amendment might be passed and ratified under the stress of war, but it would take time, and in the meanwhile where would the Government get money to pay the troops, to buy ammunition, guns, ships, and provisions for the soldiers and sailors?

The resignation of Secretary Sherman puts an end to an awkward, not to say an intolerable, situation. Ever since he assumed the position thirteen months ago, the State Department has been one of growing responsibility, until at last it became the most important of all; and yet its nominal head has been a broken-down old man, who was utterly incapable of discharging its duties, and whose presence was a source of constant embarrassment. It is a melancholy ending of an exceptionally long public career—this necessary crowding out of the secretaryship of a veteran who had first been crowded into it, against his will, in order that his seat in the Senate might be had for a new-comer in politics. The episode has been one of the most discreditable in our political history, and the sooner it is forgotten, the better. Mr. Sherman will be succeeded in the secretaryship by the man who as first assistant has done the work during the past year. Judge Day was an unknown Ohio lawyer when he came to Washington, but all accounts agree that, although devoid of diplomatic training or experience, he has done remarkably

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well as the real head of the State Department during a most critical period.

The retirement of Mr. Gary from the Postmaster-Generalship is no loss to the public service, because he has shown no capacity for anything beyond the discharge of its duties along conventional lines. One must be a man of uncommon force of character and of especial talent for executive affairs to leave any impression upon this department, even if he remains at its head for the four years of a President's term. The second change in the cabinet, like the first, shows the humbug of the locality method of constituting that body. Mr. McKenna was made Attorney-General in order to "give recognition to the Pacific Coast," but he had filled the place only a few months when he was appointed to a seat on the Supreme Bench, and was succeeded by a New Jersey man. Mr. Gary, a respectable and successful business man of Baltimore, was selected in order to "give recognition to the South," but he resided in what is really quite as much a Northern as a Southern State, and, retiring after about a year's service, he is succeeded by a Pennsylvanian. Thus the South and the Pacific Coast are both left without representation. The cabinet appointments are now "lumped" to an unusual degree in the region between Boston and Chicago, one representative being allotted each of the States of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois; while Iowa is the only commonwealth of the great number west of the Mississippi and south of the Ohio which has a place.

Mr. Wanamaker keeps on making exposures of the Quay despotism in Pennsylvania, and his disclosures at Bellefonte on Tuesday week were in some respects the most startling yet made. "There was a time," he said, "when we could boast of a free press, but to-day in Pennsylvania, to a great extent, it exists only in name. The same political influences that have poisoned the springs of public integrity, that have corrupted the politics, that have debauched the counsels of legislation, that have wrecked banks, trust and insurance companies, have contaminated and blocked the course of public news." Mr. Wanamaker traced the various methods by which this result is achieved. In the first place, large numbers of the great army of correspondents who first gather the news are "hypnotized by the machine," so that they manufacture stuff favorable to the machine and suppress news that is unfavorable. In the second place, the news that does pass the reporter sentinels must then run the gauntlet of the news service, where machine retainers are often secretly planted upon the management, and the facts are more thoroughly squeezed out. Finally, when it reaches the newspaper office, it frequently encounters a machine-owned editor, or a political guard, stationed in the news room, by whom it is finally suppressed or distorted; while scores of editors throughout the State are candidates for post-offices, and do not furnish the news, and many more have relations who expect appointments, and realize that it would never do to print facts detrimental to the machine. Nor does the Quay machine stop with suppressing the publication of matter that it does not wish the people to read. Mr. Wanamaker charged that "some of the great telegraph systems are no longer safe conductors of private messages." He stated that the superintendent of one great company sits in the secret councils of the machine. He declared that "our friends" (meaning the opponents of the machine) "complain that in some places no message of importance is sent of which the machine is not advised." Do they manage things any better in Spain?

Massachusetts follows the example of New York in substituting the electric chair for the gallows. Hitherto, murderers in the Bay State have been executed by the rope, the penalty being inflicted in the jail of the county where the crime was committed. A law has just been passed by the Legislature which provides that the electric current shall hereafter be used and, in order to avoid the necessity of more than one plant for the purpose, all executions will take place in the State prison. Another reform in methods adopted from New York is a restriction of the old publicity of executions, as nobody will be permitted to be present except certain officials, including the necessary physicians, the surgeon-general of the Governor's staff, and the Sheriff of the county in which the crime was committed, and not more than three other persons. The substitution of the electric chair for the gallows in New York is a change which was long since thoroughly vindicated, and the only wonder is that other States, even the most progressive, are so slow to take the same step.

The attitude of the French press towards our war is anything but favorable, but this was to have been expected. In the first place, it is said on good authority that the French are the principal foreign holders of Spanish securities. We have heard this holding estimated as high as $120,000,000. The relations of Frenchmen and Spaniards have for centuries been very cordial. Spaniards always form a very prominent feature in Parisian society. In the second place, they are of the same religion—and religion still counts with the bulk of Frenchmen—and rely on much the same saints in time of difficulty and danger. In the next place, both are peoples who attach great importance to manners, and the American absence of or indifference to manners has always outraged them both in equal degree. This war has, unhappily, brought out this trait in our character with unusual prominence. There was probably never a war begun with so little attention to forms and preceded by so much billingsgate. Every now and then there appears on the Parisian stage a play intended to ridicule Americans—we believe that such a one is running there now—and in these plays the American want of manners is the characteristic always most prominently displayed. We need not go into particulars to show the great probability that the present unpleasantness has furnished abundant fuel for hostility to us on this score, in Paris as well as in Madrid. There is nothing which in Europe excites so much anti-American prejudice as this indifference of ours to forms, and our somewhat ludicrous tendency to believe that forms in a foreigner mean affectation.

The friends and admirers of Crispi, the Italian statesman, waited a good while with great anxiety for the report of the commission which was to inquire into his reported connection with the bank scandals that occurred during his administration, for even those who do not admire him as a statesman, have a soft place in their hearts for him as an old soldier, one of Garibaldi's glorious Thousand. The commission has made its report. What it says is that the Bank of Naples opened a branch at Bologna in 1893; that, between the opening of the branch and 1896, Crispi had six transactions with it, namely, loans upon promissory notes, and that the sums thus furnished to him were obtained by fraudulent means by Favilla, the manager. They were repaid with interest, but they were, it would appear, repaid out of public money of which Crispi at the time happened to have control. Crispi alleges in his defence that the money thus obtained was used for public purposes, but this was not made out very clearly. Nor did it appear very clearly that he did not know where Favilla was getting the money. There was, however, something worse than this: When an inspection of the banks was ordered in 1895, he used his official influence to get Favilla's bank exempted from it, and yet, had it been made at that time, Favilla's frauds would have been discovered. The commission seems to have done its work faithfully, but the report shows that the Italians are nearly as clever as we are in mixing politics and business. The most striking resemblance of all is Crispi's declaration, when he was reëlected to the Chamber, after the exposure, that the reëlection operated as a "vindication."

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THE WAR, AND AFTER.

The President having signed the Cuban resolutions passed by Congress, and the Spanish Government having refused to comply with the demands therein made, the two nations are now at war with each other. We have done everything in our power to prevent this lamentable result, but even a veto of the resolutions could only have caused some delay in the rush of the nation into war —could hardly have prevented it. The President has proclaimed a blockade of the principal Cuban ports, which is really the only thing to do to carry on the war at present. There is little use in bombarding Havana until we have a force to land and take possession of it after bombarding it, and if we had one we should, for humanity's sake, be unwilling to land it at this season. But it must not be forgotten that blockading and "starving out" are a tedious business. There is no certain information as to the state of the Spanish garrison for supplies. The Administration may know more than the public on that point, but the public knows little or nothing. What is called "military honor" will oblige Blanco to hold out as long as he can, and we may be sure that he will do what military commanders do in all such cases—sacrifice the inhabitants to the garrison.

Some sanguine spirits in Washington think that all will be over in thirty days. On the other hand, we have Gen. Miles's reported advice not to send troops to Cuba until the rainy season is over. Much as we, in common with every one else, wish the war settled in the shortest possible time, to send troops, even hardened regulars, to the island now will simply be to subject them to frightful losses, such as must inevitably follow their exposure to the yellow fever and the other evils of the Cuban climate. To proceed quickly is one thing; to expose rashly our best officers and men to certain death before we can reinforce them with trained soldiers is a very different matter, particularly as no one knows how long we shall have to maintain troops in the conquered territory before that desired stable government shall have been established. Furthermore, the next six months will be all too short a space of time to properly organize and drill the volunteers just called for.

If it depended solely on the capture of Cuba, the war might be short. The island is not defensible against a great Power lying so near to it as we are, by a Power lying at so great a distance as Spain is. If Cuba were within one hundred miles of Spain and three thousand miles from us, we never could wrest it from her. The disadvantage of distance would be so great that we never should attempt to do so, nor even imagine such a thing. The disadvantage of distance is even greater against Spain in the present case from the fact that the island of Cuba derives nearly all her food supplies from us. There is no other country that could supply her fully, except possibly Canada. We are blockading her, and this raises a very solemn question for us to consider, viz., what is to become of our friends the reconcentrados? Only a short time ago we were on the point of going to war for the privilege of feeding these poor people. We had the most doleful pictures of their condition from Senator Proctor, from Miss Barton, from Dr. Klopsch, and from our consuls in the island. Dr. Klopsch said that if the island were blockaded, they would all starve to death within a week. Now the pressing question is how to carry on the war so as not to murder our own friends and adopted children. After taking so much pains to rescue them from misery, we ought not to make their last end worse than their first.

The next question is what we are to do after taking the island. Recognize the Cuban republic? That means putting the reins in the hands of Gomez and his followers. That is the contention of the Democratic party in this country. That is what is meant by the display of Cuban flags in the columns of the yellow journals. That is the reason why the Cuban bonds have been issued and placed where they will do the most good. It is a very attractive programme to the bondholders and issuers, no doubt, but it will never be adopted by the American people. The brigands and half-breeds who have kept this country as well as their own in a turmoil for three years will never be put in authority over the orderly and peace-loving wealth-producing inhabitants, at the cost of American blood and treasure, unless they are a majority of the island, and proved to be such by an election held under our auspices, at which every qualified person can vote without fear or constraint.

What will happen if Gomez and his followers refuse to disband at our instance? In that case it would be incumbent upon us to take up the task of suppressing them, and this we should do beyond a doubt. We should have stepped into Spain's shoes in this particular after fighting Spain for the privilege of doing so, and there would be no escape from it. Our declared purpose is to pacify the island, to make it free and independent, to establish a stable government and then to take hands off. Government, according to our theory and our principles, means the government of the majority, and if the insurgents do not agree to this, we must put them down, and this we shall infallibly do. According to the report of Consul McGarr, they do not number at the present time more than 10,000 men all told. There is every reason to believe that they are a small minority of the whole population of Cuba. That they are the least intelligent part of the population, and least fitted to govern themselves or anybody else, is also pretty generally admitted. So far as Cuban politics enters into our politics, the party that follows President McKinley's plan may fairly claim the support of all believers in the rule of the majority. Cuban flags and yellow journals and Junta bonds are alike obnoxious to that principle.

POOR SPAIN!

Pobre España, wrote unlucky Minister De Lome, and "our poor Spain" is the common phrase on the lips of Spaniards, officials and others, who speak of the thickening perils confronting their country. Even in the Queen Regent's speech, with all its fine display of national pride and courage, there was audible a note of profound melancholy, as of a nation conscious that its inspiring past and its most desperate efforts would not keep it from taking one more step in a decadence probably without historical parallel. Glance only at a map of the Western Hemisphere and see the vast possessions which have been sheared away from Spain within a hundred years, and you will begin to understand her passionate clinging to Cuba, "the ever-faithful isle," as Spaniards have delighted to call it, as the last visible token of a vanished grandeur. Yet Spain's leaders cherish no illusions as to the result of the conflict upon which they are now entering to retain Cuba. They know that they will lose the island, that their lingering prestige in Spanish America will disappear in its last vestiges, and that Spain will be plunged deeper than ever in miseries. No wonder that, even in the same breath with their bravest defiance, they whisper, "Poor Spain!"

During the past twenty years, or since the close of the last Cuban insurrection and the return of the Bourbons to the throne, Spain has had a breathing-spell. Perhaps it might be said that she was then given by fate her last opportunity. She had peace at home, after fifty years of endless revolts and *pronunciamientos* and dictatorships and changes of government. She increased rapidly in population and in wealth. She even, under the lead of Sagasta and the Liberal party, accomplished many reforms in legislation: the suffrage was extended, religious freedom established, trial by jury obtained, and so on. But all the while the real disease from which the nation was suffering was insidiously strengthening, and when the Cuban trouble flamed up three years ago, Spain was discovered to the world weaker than ever. With all her splendid energy of race still existing, administrative capacity seemed to have deserted her. The more desperately she struggled, the more she seemed to flounder helplessly in a quagmire of executive and military incompetence.

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Making every allowance for the enormous difficulties in the way of campaigning in Cuba, the failure of the 250,000 soldiers sent there to subdue at the most 40,000 insurgents is simply unparalleled and colossal. Authentic stories of wretched equipment and inadequate supplies and bad leadership show to what a depth of inefficiency the service had fallen. Moreover, a good deal of the military strength of Spain in Cuba was merely on paper. She sent there, for the most part, only conscripts, mere boys. Her very last reinforcements, some 16,000, sent to Cuba since the 1st of January, are described by the correspondent of the London *Times* as largely "boys of fifteen and sixteen years of age." Her best troops, some 70,000 or 80,000 seasoned men, Spain kept at home "in case anything should happen" (*para lo que ocurriere*). That is, the lurking fear of a Carlist uprising or a republican outbreak tied the hands of the Government.

But how about the Spanish navy? We are more concerned about that just now. In what state of efficiency has the Government kept the navy? Well, we can judge only by scattered indications, but those, we must say, confirm the opinion of Mr. Goldwin Smith that the Spanisn naval service is in as bad a state as her military, and that the "Spaniards have hardly mechanical skill enough to handle the new machines" which have supplanted the ships of the old style. In the naval war which Spain waged against Chili and Peru in 1865-'66, she cut a lamentable figure in gunnery and seamanship. She was able to bombard defenceless Valparaiso, but in the one naval action she was practically defeated by an improvised and inferior fleet. During the present Cuban war she has been unable to prevent filibuster after filibuster from landing men and cargo. Her loss of the fine cruiser *Reina Regente*, four or five years ago, was one of the most frightful and disgraceful calamities that ever befell a navy. This war-ship was sent to carry the Moorish Ambassadors from Cadiz to Tetuan. Her captain warned the authorities that she was unstable unless heavily loaded with coal; but there was no coal to be had at Cadiz; the *Reina Regente* was ordered to sea, ran into a gale coming back, incontinently upset, and now lies at the bottom of the sea with all her crew.

This Spanish habit of trusting to luck and improvising everything at the last moment has, we believe, marked Spain's preparations for war with the United States. Although that war has been pointed to unerringly for two years past, it bursts upon her sadly unready. The correspondent of the London *Times*, writing from Havana on March 26, said that a blockade would reduce the army to starvation in "a very few weeks." And there is reason to credit the reports that the Spanish fleet and coaling-stations are grievously short of coal. For a year or two now coal has been very expensive. It takes hard cash to buy coal, and Spain has been living from hand to mouth in both cash and coal. She can now command cash, but finds herself, on the verge of a naval war, without adequate supplies of coal and with none obtainable in sight. But battle-ships without coal are helpless hulks. This circumstance, together with her disadvantages on the score of distance from the probable scene of the war, makes the odds against Spain simply fearful.

Travellers in Spain report that intelligent middle-class Spaniards will admit every charge of incompetence which can be brought against the conduct of public affairs. "Yes, we have a wretched government. In any other country somebody would be shot for this." There is the hopeless, fatalistic creed of the Spanish bourgeois: the Government is detestable, and killing somebody is the only remedy. It is surely a great mystery—this creeping paralysis, this accelerated decadence of a noble race. None of the off-hand explanations offered really explain. A clever writer in *Blackwood's* is thrown back upon the conclusion that all you can say is, that "there is something Spanish in the Spaniard which causes him to behave in a Spanish manner." Whatever the cause, we are no doubt about to witness the final extinction of Spain as an American Power. The mysterious ways of Providence in abasing a once exalted nation are not made less mysterious in this instance by the choice of an instrument to execute the divine decree. It would be rash to conclude that because Spain has apparently lost the favor of Heaven, we are securely established in it.

THE BANK OF SPAIN.

Given an unrestricted command over a printing-press, and a government can be financed long after the conditions have outwardly become desperate. Spain is in this position, and it is foolish to speak of her as bankrupt and financially impotent. On the contrary, she still has the means of obtaining funds, and the instrument for rendering these means available is the Bank of Spain. The remarkable constitution of this bank deserves some study, for its position is almost unique in financial experience.

The Bank grew out of a reorganization by Government in 1857 of certain existing and well-nigh moribund banks. It was local in influence, and in a few years had become little else than a land-bank, its resources being mortgaged to the state on the security of the national property, in return for which mortgage-notes were issued as circulation. The Revolution of 1868, dethroning Queen Isabella, aided the Bank, as the new Government came to depend upon its assistance, and in return conferred upon it exclusive privileges, making it one great Bank of Spain. This transformation was accomplished in 1874, and was intended to consolidate the national funds, to establish a uniform circulating medium secured by a metallic reserve, and to aid commerce by discounting commercial paper. From a Madrid bank, whose notes never circulated outside of the capital, grew a national bank, with notes circulating throughout the Peninsula.

It was essentially a corporation to aid the financial management of the kingdom. The Minister of Finance, Echegaray, under whose administration this change was effected, wished to place restrictions on the demands on the new bank by the state. The loans were to be infrequent, and always secured by collaterals running for short times and readily convertible into cash. Under the older institution the Bank was more than once placed in jeopardy by the Treasury; but the new alliance of Bank and Treasury was to be "discreet," one "highly advantageous to our public finances and very profitable for the Bank." The connection was made too close, for the Bank had in a single year become a servant of the Government, farming its revenues and gradually monopolizing all state finances.

The capital was fixed at $19,300,000 in 1874, but was increased by one-half in 1882. The administrative council is chosen by the shareholders, subject to the approval of the King, and this council recommends to the King two assistant governors. The governor holds his appointment from the King, and even the manager of a branch can be chosen only with the royal approval. The management is thus assured to the state. Under its original charter the Bank could issue paper money to five times the amount of its capital. A reserve in specie of one-fourth the circulation outstanding was required, but one-half of this may be silver, which is worth less than the Bank's paper. In 1891 the Government fell into difficulties, and required of the Bank a permanent loan without interest of an amount equal to the full capital of the institution ($28,950,000), a violation of the law of 1874, which expressly stipulated that the Bank should make loans to the state only upon good securities, readily turned into cash. This single transaction constituted a loan to the state of the entire capital of the Bank, not a penny of which could be repaid till the charter expired. In return for this advance or loan, the charter was extended to the year 1921, and the limit to the note issues was placed at $300,000,000.

Whatever independence the Bank had enjoyed was destroyed by this loan, for its resources were now too heavily mortgaged to the state to make it other than an adjunct to the Treasury. The Bank manages all the funds of Spain, ac-

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counting for them every three months. If the state revenues are not sufficient to meet expenses, the Government pays interest to the Bank for the difference, or if the difference is large, issues temporary notes (*pagarés*) bearing interest. But the Bank pays nothing for the use of any surplus the state may have deposited with it. The foreign and domestic debts are managed by the Bank for a consideration, and all foreign payments are passed through it. It has enjoyed the profits from the tobacco monopoly, and the direct taxes on land and industries have been turned over to it as a guarantee of the loans made during the Carlist troubles. In fact, in whatever light it is examined, the connections between Bank and Treasury, even before 1894, were so many and so close as to make the two practically identical.

Since 1894 the financial operations of the Spanish ministry have still further absorbed and even monopolized the activities of the Bank. No bonds supported by a pledge of the revenues of Cuba could find a sale in any money market of Europe, for it was readily recognized that such a pledge was of the highest uncertainty, little better than no pledge at all. It could appeal only to the gambler on foreign exchanges who was willing to take any risk. Even at home the market was reluctant to absorb the ever-mounting issues of bonds, so the Bank took the securities at a rate which yielded a handsome profit to itself, and gradually passed them on to the Spanish public. With every new loan thus financed, the Bank counted upon good profits, and it has greatly benefited by the Treasury necessities. But the time came when bonds issued on the Cuban revenues were no longer salable, and remained in the tills of the Bank. The additional pledge of the customs revenue of the Peninsula was made, and opened up a new market for Spanish loans; but every dollar was made through the Bank, and the state required of it immediate advances on the bonds deposited with it. Since the outbreak of the insurrection in Cuba the cost has been borne by the Spanish Treasury, for the Colonial Treasury was a fiction; and the Spanish Treasury has been little more than the Bank of Spain. Of the $160,000,000 in Spanish customs bonds issued, one-half has been taken by the public and the other half is held by the Bank as security for advances to the Government.

Had it not been for these Government transactions the Bank would have fared badly in its balance sheets. As it was, the year 1897, so trying to all Spanish economy, proved a year of exceptional profit to the Bank. A dividend of $7,200,000, equivalent to 24 per cent. on the capital, was distributed among its shareholders. In 1896 the rate of dividend was 22 per cent. and in 1895 it was 19 per cent. If any conclusion is to be drawn from these figures, it is that the state uses the credit of the Bank to market its securities, but is obliged to pay usurious rates for the advantage.

NO PRIVATEERING.

It was announced in the British Parliament on Thursday that the Government of the United States had decided to abstain from the use of privateers during the present war with Spain, and the announcement was received with cheers. This news having been telegraphed back to Washington, Senator Money of Mississippi called attention to it, and said that if such a step had been taken, the President had exceeded his authority, since the right to grant letters of marque and reprisal was one of the powers vested by the Constitution in Congress. What Mr. Money said was quite true, yet there is not the smallest chance that there will be any conflict between the President and Congress on this question. Probably the President's action in the matter will have the effect to make the United States a party to the Declaration of Paris. The latter was an agreement entered into by the great Powers of Europe in 1856, after the war in the Crimea, as follows:

"(1.) Privateering is and remains abolished.

"(2.) The neutral flag covers enemy's goods, with the exception of contraband of war.

"(3.) Neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, are not liable to capture under an enemy's flag.

"(4.) Blockades in order to be binding must be effective—that is to say, maintained by a force sufficient to prevent access to the coast of an enemy."

The United States was invited to become a party to this declaration, but declined to do so for the obvious reason that, to nations which maintained small navies, privateering was more useful than to those which kept large ones. When the civil war broke out, we endeavored to get in line with the other Powers in abolishing privateering, but it was then too late. France and England had recognized the belligerency of the Confederate States. They could not then treat our renunciation of privateering as including the Confederacy also. In other words, they could not recognize our right to tie the hands of the Confederates in respect of privateering after the war had begun. A privateer under the Declaration of Paris is a pirate, and may be hanged with all of his crew whenever caught by the naval or civil officers of any Power, belligerent or other, but this principle governs only between Powers which are parties to the agreement. It would not apply to the privateers of Spain at the present time.

The argument against the practice of privateering was stated by Benjamin Franklin as well as it has ever been presented by anybody. It is quoted by Woolsey (p. 211):

"'The practice of robbing merchants on the high seas, a remnant of the ancient piracy, though it may be accidentally beneficial to particular persons, is far from being profitable to all engaged in it, or to the nation that authorizes it. There are three employments which I wish the law of nations would protect, so that they should never be molested nor interrupted by enemies even in times of war; I mean farmers, fishermen, and merchants.' In some observations on war he pursues this subject of the evils of privateering at great length, and ends thus: 'There is then the national loss of all the labor of so many men during the time they have been employed in robbing, who, besides, spend what they get in drunkenness and debauchery, lose their habits of industry, are rarely fit for any sober business after a peace, and serve only to increase the number of highwaymen and housebreakers.'"

The opportunity presented to us to make ourselves parties to the Declaration of Paris—or perhaps we should say the motive presented to us—is a distinct gain to civilization. So long as we had no motive we should take no such step. We should keep privateering in reserve for what it might be worth. The motive we have now is that to abolish privateering secures us the good will of the maritime Powers. It protects the commerce of neutrals against the scourge of a kind of warfare extremely annoying, largely irresponsible, and almost certain to embroil us with other Powers. Privateering is so far behind the age—so much time has elapsed since the flag of a privateer was seen on the ocean—that it is not likely that the Powers of Europe would allow their merchant ships to be stopped and examined by the private armed vessels of either the United States or Spain. There was a semi-official statement sent out the other day from Berlin to the effect that Germany would not allow it. So we are clear gainers by the giving in of our adhesion to the principle that "privateering is and remains abolished."

At the time when Secretary Marcy declined, in behalf of the United States, to give our adhesion to the Declaration of Paris, he said that we would cheerfully do so if an additional clause were agreed to, that all private property not contraband of war should be exempt from capture on sea as well as on land. This the Powers of Europe would not agree to, nor have they agreed to it since. In time of war the ocean is still an open field to "commerce-destroyers," provided they belong to some regular navy. Private property on land is not subject to plunder by an invading army. No doubt a vast deal of plundering is done on land, but it is under the ban of international law. The German army when it captured Paris in 1870 could not lawfully carry off the money of the Bank of France. It had the physical power to do so, but, under the law of nations, Germany would have been obliged to account for it afterwards. But if Germany had captured the same money afloat outside the three-mile limit of French territory, it would have been a

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lawful prize. This incongruity in the practice of nations still exists, but its existence does not make it the less expedient for us to join in the abolition of privateering.

THE POLICY OF ISOLATION.

Ex-Secretary Olney has an interesting article in the last number of the *Atlantic Monthly* on the policy of isolating ourselves from the rest of the world, and treating all foreign affairs as no business of ours, so long as they do not threaten us with some sort of injury. This has been carried so far that we even shrink from protecting our own citizens, as in the case of Turkey, if it seems likely to involve us in a European squabble. If we dislike to meddle even for the purpose of avenging injuries, still less do we wish to meddle for the plain promotion of our interests. Although England is taking much trouble and incurring some risk in China, in order to secure certain commercial advantages, which we shall share on equal terms, and to ward off certain dangers which, though they will not affect us in the same degree, still will affect us in some degree, we are able, owing to this policy of isolation, to offer her nothing but our "moral support."

Mr. Olney apparently ascribes this in large part to the traditional reverence for the warnings of Washington against entangling ourselves in European alliances or quarrels, uttered at a period when any country in Europe was twice as far away from us as China is now, and when we never heard any news from the Old World until two or three months after the event. He proposes now that we should cast off these traditional shackles and fairly join the community of Christendom. He instances the policy of protection, or trying to carry on trade and commerce through our own markets solely, until our production has long outgrown our markets, as a good illustration of what this policy eventually leads to. He accordingly recommends its entire abandonment, and that we should throw in our lot with other nations, and try to get our share of whatever good things are to be had anywhere through the advance of the world in wealth, population, discovery, and invention.

But the transition will not be so easy as he seems to think. Two or three generations have grown up under the present policy, and have imbibed its ideas so thoroughly that belief in it and admiration of it have become part of their equipment as American citizens, and make them look with a certain suspicion on all arguments in support of a change. It will be difficult to persuade that portion of our population which is not in actual contact with the machinery of exchange, that free trade is not a British device for the confusion and impoverishment of other nations, or to familiarize them with the free-trade doctrine that commerce is barter. It has taken a good while to give the protectionist doctrine a foothold in their brains, and it will take some time to put something else in its place. But we admit freely that the reported *entente cordiale* with Great Britain will do a great deal to hasten the process.

This, however, is not all. We shall need a great change in our political manners. Almost ever since the foundation of the Government, certainly ever since we became very strong, each generation has been taught that we had nothing "to do with abroad," to use Judge Matthews's phrase; that nothing foreign concerned us politically, as long as no European Power attempted a settlement on this continent or sought to extend its borders in America. We were taught not to care what Europe said or thought about anything we did or how we did it. This naturally produced, after a while, complete indifference about the way in which we kept up our relations with Europe. We gradually ceased to pay any attention to the qualifications of the men whom we appointed to make our communications to Europe, or to hear what Europe had to say to us. We ceased to appoint ministers or consuls with any reference to the duties they would have to perform, any more than if Europe did not exist. To-day London and one or two others are the only posts in which we show, by our manner of filling them, that we think the minister will have anything to do, and that it makes any difference what kind of man he is, as long as he is pleased with his place himself. Our diplomatic appointments are generally made as if the minister were to stay at home, and was entitled to some agreeable reward on account of his exertions in home politics. But few of our ministers concern themselves about the countries to which they are accredited or about what is in them.

Under these circumstances, there is, naturally, not much study of languages or of foreign policy among our young men, and little concern among the people at large as to the manner in which our Executive is conducting a negotiation, beyond readiness to go to war if he says war would be a good thing, or is necessary. To the bulk of the population, in fact, foreign politics is a sealed book, and no competent public man gives himself the trouble to explain it or comment on it. If we joined the European world, therefore, we should need at once a corps, not only of competent and instructed diplomats, but of trained committees in the House and Senate. Our committee on foreign affairs, both in the House and Senate, has lost any feeling of responsibility toward foreign nations. It insults them or disregards their susceptibilities with childlike *insouciance*. Only about three weeks ago the committee of the Senate openly insulted Great Britain with as much simplicity as if Great Britain were one of the extinct nations of antiquity. They talked about her and her designs with as much frankness as if they were having a yarn at a corner grocery. If we became one of the family of nations in Mr. Olney's sense, of course, this would never do. There would be constant disputes and recrimination. Foreigners would keep taking offence and demanding explanations. There would be new combinations and new alliances in consequence of some patriotic Senator's remarks to his constituents. In fact, the sense of responsibility for spoken words would have to be developed, especially in our Western representatives, to a degree for which it would be hard to get them to see the necessity. We do not mean to say the thing is impossible, but it would take more time than Mr. Olney seems to think; old and deeply seated habits are not to be got rid of in a day.

Still, the restoration of harmony or good feeling between England and America is a consummation so devoutly to be wished that no difficulties or obstacles should be allowed to stand in its way. England has plainly recognized, at last, that America is her best and only natural ally and friend. We believe the most enlightened Englishmen have long felt this and tried to show it. The trouble has been that there has been no practical way of proving that England was sincere. The Cuban war has happily furnished one of which even the most savage Jingoes acknowledge the sufficiency. It may be said, of course, that this newly formed friendship is very likely to be more valuable to England than to us, in view of the attitude of the Continent towards her. But what of it? Wise statesmen do not inquire too closely into motives. The sole questions for us are: Is it a good thing for us? Is it a good thing for liberty and civilization? No one who sees how things are going in the great Continental states can well help answering these questions in the affirmative.

RENAN AND BERTHELOT.—I.

PARIS, March 6, 1898.

The correspondence of two men like Renan and Berthelot, extending from the year 1847 to the year 1892, cannot fail to excite much curiosity. This correspondence, at the instigation of M. Berthelot, who is still alive, was first published in the *Revue de Paris*, a review which has rapidly acquired an importance equal to that of the old *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The series of articles which appeared in the *Revue de Paris* has now been condensed in a volume.

There is no need to say anything about Renan, who has long been world-famous. M. Berthelot, his correspondent, has made his reputation as a chemist. He has been, if not the only, the principal initiator of the synthetic method in chemistry. The first

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chemists were occupied chiefly in decomposing all natural bodies, so as to know their elements; the new chemistry starts from the molecules and builds new bodies with them, not only inorganic, but organic also, at least constituent elements of all organic bodies. I shall not give here even a brief résumé of the works of M. Berthelot in this second phase of chemistry; it is enough to say that he has attained great eminence in the scientific world. Science turned his mind to philosophy; he is one of those savants who do not shut themselves up in a limited sphere, but who embrace the whole field of science. He became a friend of Renan in the days when both Renan and himself led very obscure lives and were quite unknown. Their friendship was of a very peculiar sort: it was a stimulant to their minds; they exchanged ideas, and their early correspondence gives an idea of what their conversations may have been.

Berthelot saw Renan for the first time in 1845. Renan was four years older than himself; he had just left the seminary and renounced the sacerdotal vocation. Their tendencies were not quite the same.

"Renan," says Berthelot, "by reason of his Breton origin, of his ecclesiastical and contemplative education, turned towards the past, had less taste than I had for democracy, for the French Revolution, and for the national, industrial, social transformation in which modern civilization is engaged. The old method of having science, literature, and art under the protection of a superior and autocratic power attracted him rather. Of this he never made a mystery. On the other hand, my Parisian origin, on my mother's side, my mind, filled from my earliest youth with medical tradition and with the example of the incessant activity of my father, induced me to sympathize instinctively with the new conception of the collective reason —that is to say, of the scientific evolution of human society. But there was between us a profound sentiment which drew us together from the first day; we were animated—it is no exaggeration to say inflamed—by a common and disinterested ardor, which led us to love, above all and before all, goodness, art, truth. It was this liking things for themselves which constantly maintained our intimacy."

What this intimacy was is well shown by the character of the correspondence. You get a glimpse of it in certain passages in the Journals of the Goncourts, since both Renan and Berthelot were members of that little society which had Goncourt for its historiographer. Berthelot's influence on Renan was chiefly owing to his great scientific knowledge. Berthelot gave his friend views which the latter had not found in the seminary, nor in his researches in exegesis—views on the nature of the world, on the relations of mind and matter, on the evolution taking place in the organic world. That these general views very early took possession of the very receptive mind of Renan is well known from his 'Avenir de la Science,' a work which he began in his youth, and published only long afterwards.

It is not so easy to say what sort of influence Renan had on Berthelot, whose father, a doctor, a general practitioner, in the poor quarter of Saint-Jacques-la-Boucherie, gave him a good education, so that in 1846 young Berthelot took the highest prize in philosophy at the Concours Général. He and Renan lived in the same house; they saw each other constantly and familiarly, and their minds were kept together in an incessant fermentation. By-and-by they took different directions. Renan became an *agrégé* in philosophy, and entered as an employee the National Library. Berthelot pursued medical studies, and became, in 1851, an assistant to the lecturer in chemistry at the Collège de France. Renan could not help him in his studies and researches, which were necessarily concrete and limited, but he could take his mind away from the concrete to the abstract, lift him above the narrow horizon of the professor, and bear him with him to the loftier regions of metaphysics.

Besides the letters of Renan and Berthelot in the volume just published are to be found letters of Renan's sister Henrietta, that remarkable woman who had an exceptional mind, and who exercised the greatest influence over her brother. She educated him and remained a spiritual guide to him till she died. It may fairly be said that she was the only person who really ever influenced him; she guided him in the great crisis which ended by his abandoning the project of becoming a priest. The three correspondents had something in common—great simplicity of manner, allied to great elevation of sentiment and of language. The letters of Henrietta Renan are very remarkable in this respect; it might almost be said that she was the most manly of the three; she certainly was the least egoistical, the most self-sacrificing and generous.

Renan has often been accused of egoism. At any rate, he was very economical of his emotions; he husbanded his own sensibility with a singular parsimony. Berthelot often reproaches him with it in his correspondence; he finds him too cold, too much master of himself. "Till I have finished my 'Origins of Christianity,'" writes Renan, "I shall be an owl and be very chary of correspondence and conversation." Berthelot, on the contrary, has, to use his own expression, "a woman's heart in his affections"; he complains to Henrietta Renan of the Olympian calm and indifference of his friend. She knows her brother well, and in a letter from Amshit, near Jebail, during the journey which she made with her brother in Syria, she writes to Berthelot this curious letter:

"The painful feelings which you express, I have often, oh very often, felt myself. I have frequently said: 'His ambitions preoccupy him more than his affections, and his new affections more than the old ones.' Nevertheless I am sure he loves me, and in view of the pain which your regrets have caused him, it is impossible for me not to believe in the depth of the friendship which he entertains for you. It seems as if he could do everything for those he loves except to give them a few moments. I assure you, sir, that I do not exaggerate in saying that during our two stays at Beirut he gave more of his time to the General and to the Pasha than to the old friend who had left everything for those distant shores. Literally, since we have been in Syria, I hardly ever see him, and when I do, he is so absorbed in the work of his mission, so preoccupied with its results or hopes, that I really do not know whether he is much aware of my presence. Well, sir, I still believe, notwithstanding all this, that my presence is dear to him, and pray, believe yourself that we hold in his life a place which no one else will ever occupy. In answer to a reproach like that in your letter, he told me once that the persons he loved best were those to whom he felt obliged to give the least time."

Renan systematically paid as little attention as possible to anything he considered secondary. His banal indulgence for men and things was part of a plan. One day he praises to Berthelot a book which had been offered to him, and lends it to him to read. Berthelot was surprised to find it nearly uncut.

The greater number of the letters in the new volume were written during the journeys of Renan and Berthelot. Renan's impressions are always worth reading; even in familiar letters to a friend he cannot help being *the writer*, and his style is as pure, as perfect, as if he meant his impressions to become part of a book of travel. His feelings in his first journey to Italy are those you might expect of the future author of 'The Life of Jesus,' of a man who had rebelled against Rome. "My first hours in Rome," he says, "were very painful." Still he cannot help feeling the charm after a while: "This city is an enchantress, and it puts one to sleep, it enervates. There is in these ruins an indescribable charm, in these churches which you find at every step a quietude, a supernatural fascination. Would you believe it? I am quite altered; I don't criticise any more, I am not indignant, I have no longer an opinion." His poetical, his clerical mind gets the best of his critical and scientific tendencies.

"Let us have no illusion; this Italian people is as Catholic as the Arabs of the mosque are Mussulman. . . . I arrived in this country with a great prejudice against the religion of the South; I had a stock of phrases against the sensual, petty, subtile Church; Rome was for me the perversion of the religious instinct. . . . Well, my friend, the Madonnas have conquered habit; I have found in this people, in its faith, its civilization, an incomparable height, poetry, and idealism. How can I express all this? How can I initiate you into this new life into which I have thrown myself with passion? Our idealism is abstract, severe, devoid of images; the idealism of this people is plastic, invincibly disposed to find a translation and a form. You cannot walk a quarter of an hour in Rome without being struck by this prodigious fecundity of images."

In the same letter, Renan expressed himself with the greatest severity on "the ugly troop with a fierce mien, pale and disgusted faces, the pupils of the Roman College." "I went," said he, "on All Souls' Day, to the offices of the Gesù, the church of the Jesuits, the most characteristic church of modern devotion, and two very distinct feelings arose in me: on one side, sympathy for this people, which accepts simply and candidly the religion which it finds, and which satisfies with it its need of an ideal; on the other side, anger and contempt for those *choregi* who sit on their throne, scholastic doctors who deform all science and all criticism for absurd dogmas. In everything I am pursued by this antithesis."

Correspondence.

AFTERTHOUGHTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few days since, a headline in a leading daily said, "The Georgia Delegation Solid for War." It can almost be said that the Georgia people are solid for peace. After much inquiry here, I have not found nor heard of one man in Decatur County who favors war. I enclose a leaf of one local paper which contains eleven distinct brief editorials and paragraphs in favor of peace. The Savannah *News* is giving some excellent editorials against the Jingo craze. The war of the Rebellion did the people of the South incomparably more harm than it did

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those of the North, and they have not forgotten it.

Most of these people live isolated lives on their farms, where they have the chance to think out political questions in the old-fashioned way, uninfluenced by congressional mobs, yellow journalism, or excited crowds. Again, there is practically no foreign element here. There is not one Irishman in this county, and not fifty people of foreign birth. Our people are the lineal descendants of those farmers who thought out and fought out our independence, and are undoubtedly much nearer the same type of men than are those of the North and West.

President McKinley is here most warmly commended by the very men who most bitterly opposed his election. It is believed that he could settle our difficulties with Spain honorably through diplomacy, thereby avoiding the horrors of war.

The South now affords examples of honest State, municipal, and local legislation that the North would do well to study and imitate. May she not, at some near future time, influence national legislation for the better? I think she will.

T. B. Brooks.

Bainbridge, Ga., April 18, 1898.

[We print this for its historical interest, and as illustrating the extent to which our "representative" government is a failure to represent.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the history of the English-speaking people nothing is more striking than the presence of great men, or of men great enough, at least, for the occasion. The man and the hour seem to be coincident; and whenever there has been disaster, or that political folly which breeds disaster, men and events have not been synchronous.

Here in Baltimore as elsewhere, probably, denunciation of this war is universal. The mildest word applied to it is that such a war is "criminal," a national calamity and disgrace. But where in public and political life is the man who should have given timely voice to wisdom and justice? President McKinley affords one of those deplorable spectacles of weakness at all times only too common. Had he stood firm, he might have saved his country from untold evils and have showed himself a hero for all time to come. But actions speak louder than words. By talking peace and as ex-officio head of the army and navy giving full run to the Jingoes, buying war-ships and recruiting men, the President has simply fed the silly war-craze and has poured oil upon the flames. And there is not a man in either branch of Congress who has had the moral courage, force of character, and political sagacity combined to stem the torrent of Jingoism which has swept both House and Senate off their feet. The disappearance, or non-appearance, of the leader in the face of grave political need is a dire portent, as sure a forerunner of misfortune as is the disappearance of certain forms of life before the coming of pestilence. At this moment, had the American people, in Congress or in the Presidency, a man whom they could look to, one who would focus and voice their distress and indignation, something might yet be done. But the people are without a leader. The criminal indifference of good Americans to the mental calibre and character of their public men has at last borne bitter fruit. Now, in the hour of our need, the President represents only his own timidity; Congress its own selfish interest, greed, and venality; and the people, helpless to make themselves felt, are being dragged into a causeless, conscienceless war. D.

Baltimore, Md., April 22, 1898.

[What one man could do in protest we must allow that Mr. Johnson of Indiana has done; and we have already done justice to Mr. Boutelle's independence.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 21st you make the statement that Boutelle of Maine has been supported by only one member in his opposition to a war with Spain. Am I in error in believing that Loud of California has been from the first an uncompromising opponent of either intervention or recognition? Although he represents a California constituency, this town is his birthplace, and his old friends watch with an intense and loving interest his attitude on all important questions, and we hope we are not wrong in believing he has shown, on every ballot, the courage of his convictions, which are unqualifiedly for peace.

One bit more that may interest: At the breaking out of the rebellion he was but fourteen; at fifteen he enlisted, and served faithfully to the end. He knows what war is.

A Constant Reader and Subscriber.

North Abington, Mass., April 22, 1898.

[We believe our correspondent is right.—Ed. Nation.]

THE METLAKAHTLA GRANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to an article in your issue of April 7, regarding the difficulties of the Metlakahtla Indians, can you tell me what was the nature of the grant made to this tribe on Annette Island? Was the land merely assigned for their use, or was it given them outright? Also, has the United States a right, in view of the improvements made on the land in question, to dispossess these people of what is rightfully theirs without full recompense? Again, have these Indians any legal standing with the Government? Not being citizens, could they hold property or could it be held for them in trust?—Very truly yours, H. D. Mann.

[The exact wording of the act of 1891 reserving for the use of the Indians (and such other Indians as may join them) Annette Island, Alaska, can be found in the United States Revised Statutes. None of the modern reservations gives a right in fee to the occupants or any right of alienation; as far as known, all hold as tenants in common, subject to the laws of the United States governing such reserves, and revocable by Congress on payment of indemnity which will cover the vested rights they have, due to possession and improvements; the right to this indemnity being a part of the general constitutional inhibition of legal robbery, and not growing out of any express contract.

No Indians are citizens; the Annette Island Indians are as much so as any, their settlement in Alaska having been authorized by Congress. Any fund or property intended for their use or benefit, as inalienable, would probably have to be held by trustees.—Ed. Nation.]

JUDGING COLLEGE DEBATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Just at this time, when the minds of many college men are turned toward debating matters, it may not be out of place to call attention to the most serious evil in debating as it is now carried on, and to suggest a remedy for the difficulty. This evil is in the method of rendering decisions.

The method of selecting judges and of making decisions in debates, which may not be known to all of your readers, is a very simple one. Six weeks before a contest is to take place, a list of the names of twenty men presumably suitable as judges is sent by the college holding the debate to the visiting college for approval. The visiting college, after striking out any of the names that, for one reason or another, may be objectionable, returns the list, and, from the names remaining, three judges are chosen, who attend the debate and render a decision on the merits of the question as debated. At a conference held at New Haven two years ago an effort was made to have judges instructed more definitely as to their duties; but the effort failed, and the only point determined upon was that decisions should be based "on the merits of the debate, not on the merits of the question."

In spite of the fact that the judges have usually been distinguished and learned men, this system has given anything but complete satisfaction. In the majority of cases the dissent from opinions has not perhaps been great, but on the other hand in many cases it has been very widespread indeed. And in the nature of things this must always be true. No matter how judicial a mind a man may have, on questions of the kind discussed in the debates—current political and economic questions—he is bound, either because of prejudice or because of superior knowledge, to have a bias which will render him incapable of making a decision on the merits of a question simply as it is presented to him on this occasion. His experience, if not his predilection, will come in to add weight to the arguments of one side and to detect fallacies in those on the other which the debaters themselves do not see or point out. He may attach great value to evidence which has had relatively little attention in the discussion. And thus an element of uncertainty—the personality of the judges—is introduced into the decision which no amount of skill can foresee or training combat. Indeed, the sagacious debater soon realizes that little of his preparation is more valuable than that which he spends in studying the opinions and records of the men whom he is especially to address.

But there is still another objection to the present system, and that is the difficulty of getting suitable subjects to debate. There are many topics of current interest, which students could debate with profit, that are

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not feasible because they do not have two perfectly equal sides; for not even very superior debaters can win if their side is much inferior. The last Harvard-Yale debate is an instance of this. In that debate the Harvard men handled what arguments they had relatively better than the Yale men did; they were certainly more skilful in refutation, and they spoke more gracefully. But they had practically an impossible task: that of proving logically the value of annexing the Hawaiian Islands. I do not mention this to detract from Yale's victory, which was especially deserved, since Harvard, with the choice of sides, had deliberately taken the affirmative, but to show that under the present system, when decisions depend on the value of the arguments presented, the qualities which ought to win a debate may not.

The remedy for these evils is, I believe, a simple one. It is to instruct judges to render their decision not on the merits of the question as debated, but on the merits of the *debating*. The change, though at first glance it may seem slight, is in reality very fundamental. It will insure that the personal attitude of the judges toward the question, and the advantages of side, will so far as possible be eliminated from the contest, and it will insure that the decision will rest just where all must agree it ought to—on the skill displayed by the speakers in presenting their case. How college men may happen to decide any question makes not the slightest difference to any one; but it is interesting, and for the purpose of stimulating work in debating, necessary, that there should be some opinion from competent judges as to which side has acquitted itself most satisfactorily. This, I am convinced, can best be accomplished by the change I suggest. The only objection that can be made to the change—that it will require judges to estimate the value of the material which each side had at its disposal—is scarcely a valid one. At any rate, it is a difficulty wholly insignificant when compared with the great evils of the existing method.

I am, sir, respectfully yours,

RALPH CURTIS RINGWALT.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, April 20, 1898.

FOREIGN EXPRESSAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My experience confirms what Miss Hapgood says about mail-matter from Russia *being taken possession of by express* companies in Germany, and is entirely at variance with the statement of "P." in your issue of April 21. Not long since a letter was delivered to me by the American Express Company in Chicago which had been stamped, posted, and postmarked in Russia, fully prepaid. It was taken by an express company at Hamburg, and so came on through the American Express Company, with charges over two dollars for expressage. Knowing what the letter probably contained, I paid the charges and took it, but have never been able to get any explanation either from express company or postal authorities. I should be glad to know the reason why.

J. D. CRAWFORD.

CHICAGO, April 22, 1898.

Notes.

It is impossible to keep biographical series from overlapping, and Franklin with a new title forms the subject of the first of the "American Men of Energy," projected by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The classification is of those "Americans whose lives and work helped to shape the destinies of their generation." Other announcements by this firm are 'Martin Luther,' by Prof. Henry E. Jacobs; a 'Life of Saladin,' by Stanley Lane-Poole; 'Matthew Arnold and the Spirit of the Age,' papers of the English Club of Sewanee for the season of 1897; 'Glimpses of England,' by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler; 'Democracy and Social Growth in America,' four lectures by Prof. Bernard Moses of the University of California; 'The Philosophy of Government,' by George W. Walthew; and 'The Study of Man,' by Prof. A. C. Haddon, first volume of the "Science Series," edited by Prof. Cattell of Columbia.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will have ready in June an 'Anglo-Saxon Reader,' for beginners, by Prof. W. M. Baskervill of Vanderbilt University; 'Later English Plays,' by Prof. Calvin S. Brown of the same institution; 'Bird Gods in Ancient Europe,' by Charles De Kay; and 'Cape Cod Week,' by Annie Eliot Trumbull.

'The Story of a Play,' by W. D. Howells; 'Thirty Strange Stories,' by H. G. Wells; 'Ghosts I Have Met,' by John Kendrick Bangs; and 'Paradise Lost: Its Structure and Meaning,' by Prof. John A. Himes, are forthcoming from Harper & Bros.

Ginn & Co. have in press Gibbon's Memoirs, edited with introduction and notes by Prof. Oliver Farrar Emerson of Western Reserve University.

Funk & Wagnalls will soon issue 'The Spaniard in History,' by the Rev. James C. Fernald.

It is announced that M. Edmond Biré is at work on a study of Chateaubriand in which, we may apprehend, that great writer will be treated as Victor Hugo has been by the same ruthless commentator and critic. But the essay is sure to be good reading.

Cotta, Stuttgart, is printing the first volume of 'Beiträge zur Amerikanischen Litteratur- und Kulturgeschichte,' by our countryman, Prof. E. P. Evans.

We learn that the well-known poet Paul Heyse is preparing for publication a series of portraits of Munich authors, in black and white.

We are glad to observe that Mr. J. Wells's dainty little illustrated 'Oxford and its Colleges' (London: Methuen & Co.), which we have already commended, has passed to a second edition.

Herbert Spencer's 'Various Fragments' (*D. Appleton & Co.*) contains a score of articles published in various journals from 1852 to the present time. Mr. Spencer has not, however, raked in everything he ever wrote, for he enumerates a baker's dozen of articles of "comparative unimportance," and mentions yet others of "little significance." The comparatively important pieces here given will repay examination by any critic who is inquiring into the merits of Mr. Spencer's methods of reasoning. The inconveniences of a decimal currency are explained; and the instance is given of an accountant who had to go over £20,000 of accounts in one day, and who said he was glad they were not in francs.

The first volume of the "Biographical Edition" of Thackeray, 'Vanity Fair' (Harpers), discloses Mrs. Ritchie's plan of editing, and a very agreeable plan it is. It consists of bringing together for each volume of her father's writings all the available notes, jottings from his diary, letters, sketches, etc., which bear upon the composition and reception of the work in question, and upon the author's life during its production. Thus, we have in the introduction to this biographical 'Vanity Fair' hints as to the persons and travels used by Thackeray as raw material, some unpublished sketches and letters—among the latter one to Edward FitzGerald—accounts of method of composition, revision, etc. The recently discovered letter of Thackeray to the Duke of Devonshire, making a post-novel disposal of Becky Sharp and others, is, of course, included. An attractive new portrait of Thackeray serves for frontispiece; and when we have added that the volume is tastefully printed and bound, it is unnecessary to enlarge further upon the merits of what should be a favorite edition of an author whose popularity is certainly not on the wane.

Lee & Shepard send us a couple of handbooks on painting, 'The Painter in Oil,' by Daniel Burleigh Parkhurst, and 'Water-Color Painting,' by Grace Barton Allen. The utility of such books may be doubted, but these are favorable enough specimens of their class. In Mr. Parkhurst's volume, especially, definite recipes are avoided, and an honest and intelligent effort is made to expound principles of work. The attempt to teach drawing and painting by purely verbal instruction is, however, foredoomed to failure. Mr. Parkhurst recognizes this to some degree by saying: "I do not say paint the nude. On the contrary, if you want to go so far as that in the study of the figure, you must not attempt to do it with the aid of a book. Go to a good life class." But it is equally true that the student of painting who would make real progress in any branch of the art should go to a good master for practical instruction.

A passage from Miss Allen's volume shows well the vagueness of verbal instruction the instant the recipe style is abandoned: "In representations of china or glass having a gold decoration," she says, "the gold must be represented by yellow, brown, reddish, or greenish tones, as the light and the situation happen to demand. The proper colors, rightly employed, will give the desired effect of metal." That is all. It is perfectly true, but it is not likely to be of much use to the student who is unable to see what are the "proper colors," or how they are affected by "the light and the situation." A writer of unusual lucidity and great analytic power might, indeed, do somewhat better than this, but his teaching could be rendered effective only by the addition of elaborate colored plates, which would make his book too expensive for the class for which such works are intended; and even then five minutes' instruction *before the object* by a competent teacher would outweigh a whole chapter. The training of the artist is a training in seeing, and what to see can be pointed out only by the instructor in the immediate presence of the thing seen.

'Early Long Island Wills of Suffolk County, 1691-1703,' an unabridged copy of the manuscript volume known as "The Lester Will Book," being the Record of the Prerogative Court of Suffolk County, N. Y., comes to us with genealogical and historical notes by William S. Pelletreau, A.M., and an exhaustive index of persons and localities (Francis P. Harper). It covers the term of

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office of Judge William Smith (1691-1706), and is, of course, only one of many similar books in other counties. The original was lost from the proper custody from 1811 to 1871, and this fact may have enhanced its value in the eyes of the editor. Otherwise we cannot account for the expenditure of money in making an "unabridged" copy of the wills of some sixty worthy but obscure inhabitants of Suffolk County. Surely, abstracts of these documents would have sufficed for even an antiquarian public, as the curious or interesting items therein are almost invisible. We must add, however, that the editor and publisher have done everything they could with such commonplace material, and that the edition is limited to 340 copies.

The handsome reprint of the 'History of the Pequot War,' from the contemporary accounts of Mason, Underhill, Vincent, and Gardener, with additions and an introduction by Charles Orr, Librarian of Case Library (Cleveland: The Helman-Taylor Co.), is avowedly only a reprint, by permission, of the copies issued years ago by the Massachusetts Historical Society. Yet as the Collections of that most stately, sedate, and painstaking society have become to a large degree as inaccessible as the originals, it was a wise and laudable act for our Western friends to issue this book. The war itself was of such vital importance in the settlement of New England that its history will be read with interest by every generation, and the quaint contemporary accounts have a freshness and life not to be equalled by the more formal periods of professed historians. Mr. Orr is to be congratulated on the good judgment and taste displayed by him in the preparation and publication of his book.

Armand Colin & Cie. have published the seventh and, presumably, last volume of the "Discours et Opinions de Jules Ferry," edited by Dr. Paul Robiquet. This particular volume is interesting on account of its containing the speeches delivered by Ferry in the course of the vigorous campaign he conducted against the Boulangists. In these, as in the other discourses, he exhibited an amount of common sense which contrasted greatly with the madness and thoughtlessness of his opponents. The work is a fitting tribute to a statesman bitterly maligned during his lifetime.

A book on Lamartine ought to be interesting, but that is not enough nowadays; it must also tell us something new about the poet, or present a fresh aspect of what we know already. This, M. Ernest Zyromski, lecturer in the University of Bordeaux, has endeavored to do in his volume on 'Lamartine Poète Lyrique' (Paris: Colin). He develops the theory that Lamartine's lyrism sprang from his habit of giving himself up in solitude to a dream-life, the intensity of which was extraordinary, and from his bearing within himself a landscape which he projected on reality. The working out of the theory is not over well done, and the impression the book makes on one is that the author has collected a lot of material from the verse of Lamartine which a more skilful hand might avail of to better purpose.

'La Fin du Classicisme et le Retour à l'Antiquité,' by Prof. L. Bertrand (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), bears all the ear-marks of a thesis for the French doctorate. In other words, it is a very careful and thorough study of the subject, well "documentée," and offering points of interest in views not always such as are generally entertained concerning certain great authors. Indeed, Prof. Bertrand exhibits a singular boldness in his estimate and criticism of André Chénier and Chateaubriand, for instance; in the case of the former, affirming that Sainte-Beuve has misconceived the significance of the poet's work, and, of the latter, placing the writer squarely among the classicists, and those of the decadence at that. His estimate of the value of the classic spirit and doctrine would make M. Brunetière rage furiously, though it must be borne in mind that he treats of the decadent classicism so well analyzed by Taine and others. The book is well worth reading, and will serve a useful purpose as a work of reference for a period less studied, perhaps, than those which immediately preceded and followed it.

The recent Ibsen festival found a twofold literary expression in Scandinavia in a book by one of the master's most enthusiastic and intelligent followers, Georg Brandes, and a "Festskrift" published by the Norwegian monthly *Samtiden*. The first is divided into three parts, giving the impressions of the critic at three different periods of his life—1867, 1882, and the present time respectively. The second work contains criticisms by representatives of the three Scandinavian kingdoms, and Finland, an article by Prof. Joh. Storm on Ibsen and the Norse language, and statistics showing the popularity of Ibsen at home and abroad. Brandes's book has as a frontispiece the latest photograph of the Norwegian dramatist, taken this year.

Students of the classics who have become interested in the newly discovered poems of Bacchylides—of whom, we know, there are several in this country—will be pleased to have their attention called to the fluent translation of four of those poems by Prof. H. von Arnim of Rostock, published, together with an essay on the poet, in the *Rundschau* for April. Another article of unusual interest in the same magazine is that by Prof. Dr. Thumb, "Die Maniaten: Ein Beitrag zur Volkskunde des heutigen Griechenlands." The learned traveller sees in the present inhabitants of the middle peninsula in the southern Morea, marked at its extremity by the promontory of Tænarum (now Cape Matapan), the nearest relatives of the heroic race of the Spartans. This primitive and warlike people is even now not very far removed from Homeric conditions, aside from the fact that it has profited by the invention of gunpowder.

In 1896 Germany exported 62 million marks' worth of books, while her imports amounted to 20 millions. The United States bought of Germany books to the amount of 7.2 millions, holding the third place in the list of all nations, and sold to her 1.7 millions' worth; the import by Germany from England during the same period reaching only 650,000 marks. In spite of the enormous production of books in Germany, their use in the country itself is still confined to a smaller proportion of the population than one might think. To be sure, there are many libraries, but most of them are university, or city, or school libraries, or others, meeting the wants of the professional scholar rather than those of the educated layman; or they are *Volksbibliotheken*, intended for the entertainment and elementary instruction of the lower classes. Good public libraries for the use of the intelligent and well educated, as well as the lower classes, are almost entirely wanting. The library recently established by the city of Charlottenburg, though called a *Volksbibliothek*, is of a higher order than other institutions so designated. In the first two months after its opening, 8,000 books were drawn by 1,500 persons of all classes, "from the laborer to his Excellency," and the reading-room (in which no daily papers are kept) was used by more than 5,000 persons. Such a success, one would think, ought to stimulate other German cities to follow the example of Charlottenburg.

Prof. Dr. Rudolph Brünnow, grandson of Dr. Henry P. Tappan, first Chancellor of the University of Michigan, is now engaged in his third scientific expedition in Asia Minor for the purpose of exploring especially the regions east of the Jordan. His former researches in this direction were exceedingly rich in results, which he intends to prepare for publication after his return to Europe in June. While in Damascus and Jerusalem he procured a considerable number of valuable Oriental manuscripts, which he presented to the library of the University of Heidelberg.

The University of Jena has decided that students of medicine shall henceforth be required to pass a satisfactory examination in psychiatry before receiving permission to practise their profession. A thorough knowledge of diseases of the mind is now deemed quite as necessary to the physician as practical skill in treating physical maladies.

Several correspondents have referred us for the early use of the word *campus* to Hall's 'College Words and Customs' (Cambridge, 1851), where we may read: "At the College of New Jersey, the college yard is denominated the *Campus*."

—In 1893 Mr. John Brenton Copp gave to the National Museum at Washington a collection of costumes, household fabrics, and other articles accumulated by succeeding generations of the Copp family. This collection is in process of reinstallation, much of it having been kept in storage to the present time. The whole collection has now been reëxamined by experts at the request of Mr. W. H. Holmes, in charge of the biological department of the museum. The books, almanacs, and other publications have been catalogued by Dr. H. C. Boulton, and Mr. Edward Eggleston has examined in detail the almost countless articles of apparel and household use. The collection is probably the richest ever made by an American family; perhaps it is the most extensive in the matter of wearing apparel and other domestic fabrics ever possessed by an American institution. The oldest article is a ponderous bed-hanging of linen, said to have been brought from England in 1635. This is now of a yellowish brown color; it once had figures stamped upon it, no doubt, in color. In the lapse of centuries the color has disappeared from the figures, but the surface of the cloth is still depressed where the figure in relief was applied in printing. The strong pressure which left this indentation in the cloth for centuries probably indicates some process other than mere printing; it is possible that the press or clamp was applied for a considerable period of time to prevent the dye elsewhere used from spreading into the compressed part, which is yet slightly lighter than the rest. There are later bedroom hangings; there are more than thirty hand-made sheets of the eighteenth century, with rich aprons and trousers and undercloth-

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ing, and articles not to be met with elsewhere, such as curious braces or suspenders of other days. One pair of these has four button-holes, one above the other. Of gowns there is a considerable number of the Revolutionary period, with some of the early eighteenth-century and of the later "Directory" and "Empire" styles. There are plain every-day frocks of gingham and calico as well as rich reception gowns. If families who have moderate collections of this nature would add the contents of their attics to the cases of the National Museum, a collection of admirable completeness might be built up on the lines of the Copp collection, which is destined to be a resource for the social historian and the artist.

—Quite the most interesting group of sketches in the fifty-fourth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is that of the Stephen connection, from the pen of Mr. Leslie Stephen. A trait of shyness and aloofness runs through the gifted members of this stock, who were yet capable of great public services. Of his father, Sir James Stephen, the writer relates that, as Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies in 1833, he had suddenly to draw up (at risk of postponement for a year) the measure for West India emancipation. "He therefore on this occasion (and on one other only) broke the Sabbath, and between the noons of Saturday and Monday dictated an elaborate bill of sixty-six sections." Mr. Leslie Stephen has also charged himself with the sketch of Dugald Stewart, in the course of which he quotes Cockburn as to the beauty of Stewart's delivery in spite of his being forced to clear his throat on account of an asthmatic tendency. But there was "eloquence in his very spitting." Our American habit is spitting in our very eloquence. Other prominent personages arrayed in this volume are the first Earl of Stanhope, who, Bismarck-like before Bismarck, "was naturally frank and open, and he used to say that he always imposed on the foreign ministers by telling them the naked truth"; Chesterfield; Castlereagh; the Earls Derby, father and son (fourteenth and fifteenth); Dean Stanley, Richard Steele, Sterne, Robert Louis Stevenson, and George Stephenson. Stevenson has ten pages allotted to him to Steele's six or seven and Sterne's twenty-two, and furnishes an interesting criterion of editorial proportion for another generation than ours to pass upon. Some American connections are to be traced in the Stoughtons of Massachusetts, in Gen. John Stanwix, and in Gen. Sir Thomas Stirling, who served against us in the Revolution, but never made an "attempt upon Springfield (Massachusetts) in June, 1780," as here explained. New Jersey is intended. Here, too, is commemorated Joachim Hayward Stocqueler, whose Life of Wellington led John Brown to magnify the possibilities of guerilla warfare in a mountainous country, who lived to serve as war correspondent in this country during the rebellion precipitated by John Brown, and died in 1885 at a ripe old age.

—In the current number of *Cosmopolis* Anton Bettelheim pays a glowing tribute, compounded of patriotic sympathy and literary appreciation, to the genius of the greatest of living Austrian poets, Ferdinand von Saar. Saar is the Viennese poet *par excellence*, quite the most perfect organ of lyric utterance that the Germans of the Eastern Empire have in this generation found. In his prose tales, thoughtful and vivid presentations of Austrian types, Saar reveals himself as a disciple of Turgeneff; but the Russian pessimism is softened by the cheery spirit of the Viennese, and although, like his master, he holds that circumstances are stronger than men, he does not drive the conflict to a tragic end, but finds his solution in Goethe's lofty doctrine of renunciation. Saar is an Austrian by birth and sentiment and in the choice of his subjects; his recently published 'Novellen aus Oesterreich' is a new evidence of this. But there is no occasion to distinguish strictly between the literatures of Germany and Austria. The Poles of Galicia have their own splendid literature, the Hungarians have theirs, the Czechs theirs; but the Austrians, Grillparzer, Halm, Lenau, Anzengruber, Saar, belong to German literature, and the last-named sadly admits that it is the German only among the peoples of that composite empire who is proud of the name of Austrian.

—No more convincing proof of the threatened disintegration of the Hapsburg realms could be found than the recent lament of the patriot poet Saar, who so long has sung the beauty and grace of his narrower fatherland. "Since Grillparzer's *Zeitgedichte*," writes Bettelheim, "no chords of such power have been struck in the patriotic lyric poetry of Austria." It should be remembered, too, that the gloomy and embittered prophecies of Grillparzer in 1843 did not come true, and his native land rose again out of her trials to dignity and might. The following is a metrically exact and fairly literal rendering of this striking poem of Saar's (by Mr. Charles H. Genung):

AUSTRIA.

Bowed with grief is my head, O thou, my Austria.
Slow, relentless decay threatens thy final fall,
Of the limitless empire,
Holy, Roman, the last remains.

Still thy eagle of state proudly its pinions spreads;
And in beauty thy realms gleam with their wonted pomp.
But thy firm ancient structure
Crumbles sullenly day by day.

True, thy populous hosts never were one in kin,
Love of one common home never united their hearts;
Pride of Austrian birthright
Cherished the *German* alone.

But when thou goest hence, gone is a peerless grace,
And a cluster of flowers falls from Europa's breast:
Thou art one made of many,
In thy bloom thou hast decked it long.

Wrong whate'er thou hast done, good thou hast left undone—
Ever wert thou *beloved*, O thou, my Austria,
And now wilt thou destroy thus,
With thyself at strife, thyself?

—During recent years the planet Mars has been assiduously studied at the Observatory of Juvisy, near Paris, by M. Antionadi and others. There, as elsewhere, the "canals" on the planet have been seen, usually as long, narrow, dark lines lying in the arcs of great circles of the surface. There is no doubt of the objective existence of such markings, as they have been mapped by many observers before and since Schiaparelli undertook their serious study in 1877. Such markings are probably long cracks or crevasses in the outer layers of the planet's surface. The experiments of M. Daubrée have shown that the expansion of an interior nucleus will produce a series of long cracks lying in the arcs of great circles. A contracting nucleus produces rugations like mountain chains. Many observers since Schiaparelli have noted the "doubling" of the Martian canals. Sometimes a single marking of the sort will be suddenly replaced by two narrow markings lying in the same region and in the same direction. If, says M. Antionadi, the Seine should suddenly disappear, and if two new rivers should be created, one running from Nantes to Marseilles, the other from Dunkirk to Strassburg, we should have a precise terrestrial analogue to the appearances of double canals on Mars. Recent popular writers have exhausted ingenuity in devising explanations of this phenomenon which should agree with their *idée fixe* that the "canals" are, without doubt, the work of human hands. It is hardly necessary to say that no explanation of the sort has been given that satisfies astronomers.

—M. Antionadi has made a careful study of the optical illusions that attend prolonged and strained vision of delicate markings of this kind, and he has come unreservedly to the conclusion that the doubling of the canals on Mars arises from defective focusing of some kind, either of the telescope, or of the observer's eye (through fatigue). One of his experiments may be tried by any one who will take the trouble to rule a fine line on a visiting card and to look at it, from a distance, with an opera-glass. A very slight disturbance of the focal adjustment, or slight fatigue of the eye, will produce a double image of the single line. It is always possible to produce double images of a single line in one of these ways. M. Antionadi's experiments seem to show that the double canals on Mars are always the results of one of these two causes. His conclusions are noteworthy in themselves as a return to rationality in the explanation of physical appearances on Mars; and it is interesting to remember that he is an assistant to M. Flammarion, who is the high-priest (in France) of the doctrine of human life on Mars. M. Antionadi accepts, tacitly, the view of the circumstances prevailing on Mars that has been consistently held by the astronomers of Princeton, Mt. Hamilton, etc., namely, that it is a planet analogous to our moon, with little or no atmosphere, no water, no clouds, with very low temperature, no human life, and no "canals" for commerce constructed by "intelligent beings like ourselves."

—M. André Lefèvre, who is Professor of Ethnography and Linguistics at the Paris School of Anthropology, and President of the Anthropological Society, has tried to give in thirty lectures a bird's-eye view of recorded history ('L'Histoire: Entretiens sur l'Évolution Historique.' Paris: C. Reinwald: New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The volume is one of the familiar Contemporary Science series, whose prospectus promises first-hand works from specialists. This promise has been fulfilled in many of the issues, but as M. Lefèvre has already contributed the volumes on 'Religion' and 'Philosophy,' and is a professor of two other pretty well differentiated sciences, it is evident that in his case the term specialist must be taken in a somewhat old-fashioned sense. The student of history approaches such attempts as this with misgiving. He anticipates a series of facile and perhaps clever generalizations, plausible enough, but not more convincing than some other series quite irreconcilable with the first. Yet, as a critic, he is disarmed by the reflection that the book is not intended to be tested in detail, but to be judged as a whole. He is certain that M. Lefèvre, accustomed to the lack of precision which is characteristic of so much in the present field of anthropology, will regard it as trifling if a reviewer objects to assertions like the following of Godfrey of Bouillon after the capture of Jerusalem (p. 491): "Il chargea quelques légistes de rédiger une constitution. . . . De leurs

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délibérations sortirent les *Assises de Jérusalem*, document précieux, écrit en français, et qui fut une des bases du droit au moyen âge." Again to read that, "en 1497, les frères vénitiens Jean et Sébastien Cabot avaient découvert, au compte du roi anglais Henri VII., le Labrador, l'Hudson et la Virginie," inevitably shakes our confidence in the chapters on early Egypt and primitive China. But possibly this carelessness in detail may be amply compensated by instructive comment or enlightened breadth of view. Undoubtedly many readers will think they find both these qualities; but one example of the want of the true historical spirit shall answer for not a few that could be cited. We are not surprised that Leo X. at first pronounced Luther's opposition to Tetzel a "monkish quarrel"; but when our author contents himself with repeating this snap judgment ("Qui pourrait croire qu'une querelle si ridicule pût enfanter tant de maux?") one concludes without injustice that with inaccuracy in details M. Lefèvre has combined a flippancy of judgment which makes his work misleading to the general reader and distasteful to the scholar.

COL. HIGGINSON'S REMINISCENCES.

Cheerful Yesterdays. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

It is seldom that a man of letters has so much of a story to tell as Mr. Higginson, an experience so varied and so active to recite. Nor has Mr. Higginson ever written more agreeably than here, with happier expression, with more wealth of humorous and effective illustration, with more of that allusive light which comes from a wide range of culture, and a memory that instinctively reproduces at the right moment the appropriate anecdote or phrase. In his brief "Epilogue" he suggests that "the public may often justly complain that too much has been told." But neither the fulness nor the intimacy of his disclosure exceeds the proper bounds either as regards Mr. Higginson himself or others. If he has a sharp word of criticism for others now and then, he does not spare himself at points where he has missed the mark. And it is not by any means as if his book had an exclusively personal importance. It admits us to the very heart of several of the greatest movements of the century, without any exaggeration of the writer's personal contribution to the current of events. It gives us history in its social setting, and has, if we mistake not, permanent worth as one of those serviceable memoirs that help new times to rightly understand the old.

Mr. Higginson's first chapter, "A Cambridge Boyhood," is a valuable appendix to Lowell's "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago," and can be read continuously with that essay, which was one of the most delightful in Lowell's lighter vein, without any "dying fall." All of Mr. Higginson's tastes and aptitudes and inclinations were prefigured in his parents and their ancestors. His father's line reached back through merchants, military and civil officers to the Rev. Francis Higginson, who came to Salem in 1829. The father was the kind of man one expects to find on the wrong side of the anti-slavery conflict and is seldom disappointed. If he had lived longer—he died in 1832, when his son Thomas was nine years old—his son might have had difficulties in the progress of his anti-slavery principles which, in the event, did not encumber him. The fact that the elder Higginson planted most of the trees in the college yard is one that "breeds perpetual benedictions" on his memory. Delightful is the story of the first supply of Hebrew Bibles for the Divinity School, in which he was much interested. He went to President Kirkland in an indignant frame because the Bibles all had their title-pages at the back end. The strain of daring and adventure in Mr. Higginson's blood came from his mother and her sea-faring English father, Capt. Thomas Storrow of the British navy. Through her also came his middle name, an inheritance from Gov. Wentworth, the first of the three royal Governors of that name who ruled over New Hampshire. Nothing adorns Mr. Higginson's pages more tenderly than his account of his mother's character and her way of life. There was everything in her reading habit to give her children's blood a literary flow, and a home library of a thousand good books surviving the father's financial wreck confirmed the mother's influence. When Mrs. Edward Everett sent her some tamarinds, her son flatters himself that they were sent for his peculiar joy; but this is, for one so deeply versed in old New England ways, to be strangely oblivious of the virtues of tamarind water. From a single remark made by his mother he dates his apprehension of the intellectual disadvantages of women and the beginning of his attempt to better them. From the killing of a bird by a young companion he dates his aspiration to deserve the friendship of Emerson by "naming all the birds without a gun." Since the civil war his feeling for birds has extended to insects and fishes, and he found that Gen. Francis A. Walker was affected in the same way by his military experience. Another early impulse in the right direction came from the blackened walls of the Charlestown Ursuline Convent. They made him a passionate believer in religious liberty.

In his second chapter, "A Child of the College," Mr. Higginson makes good his claim to this title in a degree second only to that of John Holmes and Prof. Norton, "born in it, bred in it, interested from earliest recollection in its men." He writes pathetically of the decay of its social significance since the time when the Boston banks were closed on Commencement Day; of its morality, better now, he thinks, than sixty years ago; and of its intellectual character, now and then, with something of the spirit of the *laudator temporis acti*. He praises the great qualities of Benjamin Peirce, and somewhat proudly calls the roll of men whose style was formed by Prof. Edward Tyrrel Channing. Young Higginson's years in Cambridge coincided with a brief experiment of the elective system, which in its present application he warmly commends and would have carried still further. Writing of the members of his class, he is most impressed by the foolishness of prophesying how young men will turn out. Many of his classmates falsified the predictions; the immaculate class treasurer finally bringing up in the state prison.

In his next chapter, "The Period of the Newness," Mr. Higginson gives us an inside view, at once serious and humorous, of that period. He had democratic inclinations to a life of manual labor, and some brief approximating to it on the Old Colony Railroad, carrying a surveyor's chain. He was much at home in the social circle of which Lowell and Maria White were the binary centre, and in which their love-letters were passed around as too precious for mere private use. We get wonderful glimpses of George William Curtis and his brother Burrill, in gay-colored chintz blouses and little visorless caps with tassels. Mr. Higginson remarks on the silence of George in the Boston meetings advocating the Brook Farm doctrine; but as he was merely a boarder at the Farm, and was but nineteen when he left, his silence was most natural. Like Lowell, Higginson was for a time attracted to the law, but Richter's writings drew him to a literary career, and the preaching of James Freeman Clarke and Theodore Parker diverted him for a time into the Unitarian ministry. A passage descriptive of Parker's preaching is one of the most notable in the book.

A chapter called "The Rearing of a Reformer" covers his Divinity School life and his first settlement, which was in Newburyport, where one of his parishioners was Caleb Cushing, then a real general in the Mexican war, and another, "perhaps the quietest," was that Francis Todd who had Garrison incarcerated for libel in the Baltimore jail. The strongest personal impression made on him in the Divinity School proceeded from William Henry Hurlbut of unblessed memory, generally regarded as "a worthless fellow," and so denounced by President Walker. Mr. Higginson thinks him unequalled for natural brilliancy among all the men that he has known; "even Lowell was not his peer." He was the hero of three novels, Kingsley's 'Two Years Ago,' Winthrop's 'Cecil Dreeme,' and Mr. Higginson's own 'Malbone.' Various aspects of the anti-slavery and other reforms are presented with the utmost vividness. We seem not so much to read about them as to be on the spot, and we feel the chill of the aristocratic Boston shoulder as it turned towards the abolitionist. Here, too, we get the measure of young Higginson's social courage. He sided with Garrison in drawing-rooms and at dinner-tables where exquisite gentlemen calmly gave their opinion that Garrison was "a fellow who ought to be hung."

In 1841 Mr. Higginson ran for Congress to please Whittier, was defeated, and soon after left Newburyport for Worcester, where a Free Church wished him to become its minister. Apt in the selection of mottoes for his chapters, for that on the Fugitive Slave epoch he might well have taken "These Are Our Failures," so disappointing was his experience in the attempted rescues of Thomas Sims and Anthony Burns. The details of these matters are full of interest, and so are those of the John Brown affair, in which Mr. Higginson was deeply involved. He did not, however, anticipate Brown's action at Harper's Ferry, and thinks it was an incident of some temporary morbid exaltation. He would fain have tried to rescue Brown, and later his companions, but the omens were fatally opposed. He resents the descriptions of Brown that have obtained currency through Nicolay and Hay and others, insisting that coarseness of any kind was foreign to his nature. Very affecting is his account of his own visit to Brown's wife at North Elba and his journey with her to meet her husband. In Mr. Higginson's account of his own Kansas doings, he inflicts a merited punishment on Gov. Robinson, whose

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defamation of John Brown has soiled the reputation it endeavored to exalt.

"The Birth of a Literature" is perhaps too literal a characterization of the early fortunes of the *Atlantic Monthly*. In these fortunes Mr. Higginson took an honorable part, writing more for the magazine than any one else except Lowell and Holmes. When the war broke out, his delay in finding his place at the front was longer than it seemed likely to be in advance, but when he went at last it was in an ideal fashion, as colonel of the first negro regiment recruited from the slave population. Here again, however, his ill-luck in practical adventures followed him. Seriously injured by the abrasion of a grape-shot or piece of shell, he was obliged to leave his command, and returned to it only to find himself disqualified by malaria from discharging his duties. He adds another laurel to Robert Shaw's memorial wreath when he tells us that Shaw did not share his own confidence in the courage of the colored soldiers. So much the rarer, then, his devotion to their training until the event dishonored every fear.

Mr. Higginson tells of a Boston Irishman who wished "to say a few things before he began." Mr. Higginson tells a few things after he ends with his eighth chapter. They concern literary London and Paris twenty years ago and "The Outskirts of Public Life." All three chapters are more than entertaining, but the last is one of the best in the book, giving an account of his lecturing, speechmaking, and political activity. The best conclusion of the book is the *apologia pro vita sua* on page 183, where he estimates his abounding versatility in comparison with a more contracted range. Whatever lack of concentration there has been, the varied product of his life has been uncommonly rich; while, when all is said, the man's best service has been his conspicuously unwavering devotion to every cause that has made for the enlightenment and improvement of his fellow-men.

A MODERN UTOPIA.

Industrial Democracy. In two volumes. By Sidney and Beatrice Webb. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

A distinguished professor of theology, in the days when systematic theology was the science *par excellence* in New England, once complacently remarked that he believed every difficulty was solved by his system. The book now before us gives evidence of a like cheerful belief on the part of its authors, and it cannot be denied that their optimism has an exhilarating effect on the reader. The perfectibility of human society is always an engaging theme, and those who undertake to demonstrate it are sure of an appreciative audience, provided their demonstration is reasonably attractive in form. To do them justice, these authors have certainly complied with this condition. They are well known by some vigorous polemical writings in support of collectivist theories, but in this case their work is distinguished by the calmness of its reasoning and by a genuinely scientific method. It is the product of laborious investigation, and indicates a complete familiarity with economic theories and arguments. Regarded as a scientific treatise, it is marred by prolixity and repetition; the argument could have been advantageously compressed into half the 850 pages which it occupies. But as it is probably intended for popular reading, its diffuseness may render it more easily assimilable.

In one respect the book is somewhat disappointing. The authors assure us that they have devoted six years' investigation to the task of a scientific analysis of trade-unionism in the United Kingdom, during the course of which they have examined, inside and out, the constitution of practically every trade-union organization, together with the methods and regulations which it uses to attain its ends. While the results of this investigation are apparent in the decided tone in which the authors are able to speak on a number of matters not generally understood, or generally misunderstood, the particulars which they give are more meagre and less interesting than we should expect. The importance of the conclusion rather overshadows the premises, although the authors are well aware of the great interest of the "thousands of working-class democracies, spontaneously growing up at different times and places," free from the traditions of other classes, and perpetually recasting their constitutions to meet new and varying conditions. The details of this evolution are referred to occasionally, to justify an inference, but they are dwelt upon as data for theories rather than as manifestations of human feeling. The authors aver that it is only in the third part of the work that they have ventured into the domain of theory; but they are altogether mistaken in their bearings. The whole book is pervaded by certain assumptions, and all the facts are seen through spectacles colored with prejudice. This we shall presently illustrate, but in the meantime it is desirable to examine the body of science obtained by the study of the evolution of the trade-unions.

In the first place, it seems to be clearly demonstrated by this investigation that although a strong trade-union feeling exists in favor of apprenticeship regulations, such regulations are now enforced only in a small and dwindling fraction of the industrial world.

"Over by far the largest part of the limited field in which apprenticeship once prevailed, the system has gone practically out of use, and restrictive barriers, once supported by universal approval and fondly kept up by the trade clubs of the eighteenth century, have, during the past hundred years, gradually been swept away. Finally, so far from apprenticeship regulations forming a necessary part of Trade Unionism, a positive majority of the Trade Unionists now belong to occupations in which no shadow of apprenticeship has ever existed."

There were some advantages in the old way of learning a trade, but the modern industrial pace is altogether too fast for such leisurely methods, and, while the trade-unions would restrict their membership if they could, they find that practically they cannot. The tendency, therefore, is toward free competition among laborers, so far as their choice of employment is concerned.

The condition of this degree of freedom, however, is membership in a trade-union. In a number of trades no workman outside the union can get work. No employer will have anything to do with him. He is "just as much compelled to join the union as if membership were, by a new factory act, made a legal condition of employment." It is the mission of the trade-union, according to our authors, to make this state of affairs universal, so that no one shall be able to get work at any trade unless he belongs to its union. Many laborers, many trade-unionists, even, do not recognize this truth, but it follows necessarily from another principle which is fundamental to the whole theory. This principle is that called here the "Common Rule," established by "Collective Bargaining." These capital letters indicate that we are passing from the record of facts to the realm of theory, and it is time, therefore, to consider the generalizations which support the assumptions of 'Industrial Democracy.'

The fundamental assumption is that of the disadvantage of the laborer in bargaining with the employer. "It is a fundamental article of the trade-union faith that it is impossible, in a system of competitive industry, to prevent the degradation of the Standard of Life, unless the conditions of labor are settled, not by Individual Bargaining, but by some Common Rule." According to our authors, it is a matter of indifference to the employer whether he hires a laborer or not, while it is a matter of life or death to the laborer. Hence the laborer gets only what the employer chooses to give him. According to this view, there is no such thing as competition among employers to secure laborers; their competition is in paying the lowest possible wages, and as the one that pays the lowest wages makes the highest profits, the national standard of life goes lower and lower. On this principle the whole edifice of 'Industrial Democracy' is built. If it is true, combination among workmen is indispensable to the well-being of society. It follows that these combinations, or this general combination, must establish the rule of equal pay for equal effort, and must require that work be done everywhere under the same sanitary conditions. This does not mean absolute equality of wages, although it implies equality in the hours of labor, but it means that no employer shall pay less in wages than another for a like product. Hence the schemes of employers for making their workmen dependent on them, profit-sharing, insurance funds, etc., are condemned as a subtle "nibbling at wages," and "horizontal cleavage" between classes of citizens is regarded as essential to the well-being of the industrial community.

This scheme of society is worked out with the greatest ingenuity, and even plausibility, and the actual divergences of existing trade-unions from the ideal are most instructively pointed out. Evidently everything depends on the original assumption, and the chapter on "The Higgling of the Market" is an extremely clever representation of the effect of competition in reducing prices. It is conceded that there are some enlightened employers who would prefer to employ strong, sober, honest, and skilful workmen at high wages for short hours, but they are not masters of the situation. There are other employers who employ the refuse of the labor-market, and who will undersell the benevolent employers if they put their liberal views in practice. "The capitalist manufacturer stands at as great a relative disadvantage to the wholesale trader as the isolated workman does to the capitalist manufacturer." The manufacturer is "at the mercy of the wholesale dealer," and when the latter tells him his prices are too high, he obediently cuts down his workmen's wages, unless they are combined in a union. And "just as the manufacturer is conscious of his weakness in face of the wholesale trader, so the whole-

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sale trader feels himself helpless before the retail shop-keeper to whom he sells his stock." And, in his turn, the shopkeeper is at the mercy of his customers, or consumers, in general. Here our authors stop their analysis. If they went further, they would find that as producers are also consumers, there might in low prices be compensation for low wages and profits. But the chapter is perfect as it is, and ought to put our protectionist writers to shame.

To cut the matter short, it is evident that if the production of wealth is increased by trade-unions and their methods and practices, no effective argument can be brought against their multiplication and extension. Few people will be found to deplore a diminution of profits due to an increase of wages, provided the production of goods is unaffected. Our authors argue with much force that in a society regulated according to their theories production would be actually increased, and such a result is conceivable. Rich people may learn to content themselves with one per cent. interest, and pay the difference between that and the present rate to the army of Government officers to be employed in seeing that no one does any work except at the "standard rate." But our authors go further than this, and contend that the foreign trade of England would not be reduced even if her production were reduced. "So long as we continued to desire foreign products, and therefore to import them in undiminished quantity, enough exports would continue to be sent abroad to discharge our international indebtedness." The "therefore" covers a considerable chasm in the logic of this proposition. If England were to adopt a four-hours' day for labor, could the present volume of exports be maintained, and, if not, would imports continue at the same rate? The owners of New England cotton mills and the workers therein would just now like some conclusive reasoning on this point, for it looks as if the "standard rate" could not be maintained against Southern competition.

Our authors have claimed too much for their panacea in maintaining that it would be effective if enforced in but a single community. They should insist on its world-wide application; and, pending the consummation of this, their own arguments prove that its application in a single community would be injurious. But whether we dissent from their conclusions or not, we must thank Mr. and Mrs. Webb for their services in constructing the most complete argument in support of modern socialistic theories that has ever appeared. No better case can be made out, and every economist and every statesman ought to make himself familiar with it.

THE POLYCHROME BIBLE.

The Sacred Books of the Old and New Testaments: A New English Translation, with Explanatory Notes and Pictorial Illustrations. Prepared by Eminent Biblical Scholars of Europe and America, and edited, with the assistance of Horace Howard Furness, by Paul Haupt, Professor in the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. Part 10. Isaiah, translated by T. K. Cheyne; Part 14. The Book of Psalms, translated by J. Wellhausen. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

This is an important work for several reasons. It represents the labor of many Biblical scholars of high rank. It offers a new rendering of the Old Testament, without any of the conservative trammels that restrained the Revisers of 1885. It does this on the basis of a revised Hebrew text. It endeavors to present the results of literary criticism with vivid distinctness. Each participant in the work is invited and expected to give the product of his best scholarship—intelligibly, as for the layman, but without dilution or adaptation to ignorance and prejudice. As a consequence, while the work is entirely comprehensible to intelligent men and women, it is both too erudite and too frank to appeal to the crowd of superficial Bible readers. The pictorial illustrations may, it is true, attract even some of these, and that will be their best function.

Scholars will derive profit from these volumes, but they are not intended primarily for scholars. Hence it is only after some test of use by those who are not specialists that a final opinion can be given as to the success of the undertaking. But it is not too early to say that it seems likely to both interest and instruct those who pursue the study of the Old Testament seriously, even without technical training. It will give its readers some familiarity with Old Testament problems, accustom them to the scholar's attitude, and illuminate many pages of the Hebrew masterpieces with fresh light. It is, no doubt, subject to the disadvantages which attend all endeavors to represent, in crystallized form, the results of a science which is moving rapidly. It is even more subject than some others to such disadvantages, because its parts do not represent an agreement of scholars, but each the work of but one or two. Such a representation, when it is elaborate and expensive, has some tendency to claim the position of a standard, without having an absolute right to it, and, while it is useful and furthering to-day, may hamper progress to-morrow. Photographs of the sun's corona during an eclipse are invaluable if you have enough of them. It might mislead if one photograph, by a single observer, were to be published as the authoritative view of the corona.

One other drawback in the present case is the condition of the textual criticism of the Old Testament. Only to a small extent has this as yet been conducted systematically, with a careful use of all the available means. Even the principles of such criticism are not uniformly accepted. The necessity and the difficulty of it are both great. It is inevitable that textual emendation, under such circumstances, should be made up largely of suggestions, more or less acute, in which the element of personal idiosyncrasy is not lacking. It cannot embody the results of a sound and uniform method, consistently applied. This defect is accentuated by the absence, in the Polychrome version, of the evidence on which the textual changes rest. These are given in the revised Hebrew Text, which appears as an independent work. It is a pity that at least as much help in this direction could not have been offered the reader as is contained in the margin of the Variorum Bible.

Notwithstanding these drawbacks, the Polychrome Bible marks an epoch, and will contribute to the spread of knowledge. Its name is justified in only one of the two parts before us. Wellhausen's "Psalms" shows only the common white and black of paper and printer's ink. The design of the colors was to indicate differences of authorship and date in the various materials making up the books. Not only is this clue wanting in the case of the Psalms, but in only a few cases is there any hint, in the brief notes, of the age to which a Psalm is to be referred. This is disappointing. The questions here arising are undoubtedly very difficult, but that is no reason for ignoring them. That he has ignored them is one among several indications of capriciousness in the recent Old Testament work of this brilliant scholar. The value of the part is enhanced, however, by an interesting appendix on the "Music of the Ancient Hebrews." The translation is put into English by the competent hand of Dr. H. H. Furness.

Canon Cheyne's "Isaiah" represents the plan of the work much better. He uses colors freely—laid on in blocks, according to the contrivance adopted by the editor, the ink being black throughout. Not only so, but he groups the prophecies under different heads, largely according to date and authorship, so that he can use the same colors with different signification under the different heads. Their values are explained in the notes. By the aid of these devices he distinguishes, not two "Isaiahs," but five, and of individual authors the number is still greater, for, *e. g.*, the fifth group covers more than a hundred years. Taken in connection with the hints at historical interpretation found in the notes, there is no better way of receiving a distinct impression of the most interesting of the prophetical books, as understood by a bold, learned, and acute scholar, than by reading this volume of two hundred pages with care.

It is impossible to discuss details. We commend this series to the attention of Bible students, with the hope not only that the Old Testament version may be soon completed, but that the promise of the title-page may be in due time fulfilled, and the Polychrome Version of the New Testament, of which we have no announcement as yet, be put into our hands. The literary structure of the New Testament deserves study as well as that of the Old, and just now demands it with an emphasis all the greater because it has hitherto been unduly ignored.

Forty-six Years in the Army. By Lieutenant-General John M. Schofield. The Century Co. 8vo, pp. xvi, 577.

As one by one the officers of the regular army at the head of the list have been retired from active service when they reached the age of sixty-four, the roster of those who commanded independent armies in the field has been exhausted. Now and henceforth the ranking officer of the army must be one who served in the civil war as a subordinate, till this list also shall be ended and the whole generation of those who saw active service in civilized warfare on a great scale has passed off the stage. General Schofield is the last of those who commanded armies for whom a special rank was provided after the close of the war. That of General was limited to Grant and Sherman by the original statute, which also provided that the grade of Lieutenant-General should cease with the death of Sheridan. Sympathy with the latter when he was *in articulo mortis* led Congress to confer on him the higher rank, but he never exercised it.

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A short time before General Schofield reached the age limit when he too must retire, the rank of Lieutenant-General was given him by act of Congress. These highest grades were honorary, for Grant ended his war service as Lieutenant-General; Sherman, Sheridan, and Schofield theirs as Major-Generals.

It has been known for a long time that General Schofield was writing memoirs of his military career, which would be published after his death. His retirement from active service has removed most of the objections he may have felt, and he gives us his book, as he says, while many of the actors in the great drama are still living and can point out any errors into which he may have fallen. The book is not a connected narrative of the author's life. It is rather a collection of notes and comments on events that he had part in. The first two or three chapters are more closely biographical, dealing with his boyhood and education at West Point and his service prior to the outbreak of the great rebellion. The campaigns of 1861 and 1863 in Missouri are then briefly but lucidly treated. Next follows a series of comments upon Sherman's generalship in the campaigns of Atlanta and the Carolinas, written in 1875, upon the publication of the first edition of Sherman's memoirs. These are followed by a discussion of the campaign of Franklin and Nashville in the autumn of 1864, and of the author's relations to General George H. Thomas in that important crisis. This will no doubt be considered as the most important part of the book. Further comment on Sherman's March to the Sea, its purpose, and its strategy, with the final campaign which resulted in Johnston's surrender, close the treatment of the war period. Entertaining and instructive chapters are given to the French intervention in Mexico, to reconstruction in the South, to army administration in time of peace, and to some of the lessons of the war, military and financial.

General Schofield's experience in Missouri is a most instructive lesson on the difficulties of both military and civil administration in a border State. The Union men of Missouri were divided into factions as hostile to each other as they were to the Confederates. The Union men of Kansas were generally radicals, who had been schooled by border-ruffians into an intense and implacable enmity to all slaveholders. The radicals of the two States united in the efforts to dictate a policy to the Administration at Washington, while Mr. Lincoln's heart was set on encouraging the loyalty of the anti-secession slaveholders and giving them protection. The situation was practically an intolerable one, and Schofield, as the military commandant of the department, was between the upper and the nether millstone. Mr. Lincoln appreciated the honest and patient efforts of the General to carry out his policy; but the bitter enmity of such men as Lane of Kansas and like extremists of Missouri was enough to prevent for a year and a half the confirmation of Schofield's appointment as Major-General. It was not till he had left the West and become one of Sherman's army commanders in Georgia that his confirmation was finally allowed to pass the Senate.

The chapters commenting on the Atlanta campaign contain valuable matter based on personal knowledge and throw light on some important points. The fact that the criticisms on Sherman's generalship were written in 1875 and are published as then written, must diminish their weight. The publication of the Official Records has only lately opened to us the current correspondence on both sides, without which the actual situation cannot be understood, or the shifting and growing plans and methods of the opposed commanders tested with any satisfaction. The purposes of Gen. Johnston and the pressure of the Richmond Government upon him to assume the aggressive made an element in the problem of which comparatively little was known twenty years ago. The lapse of time and the opening of new sources of knowledge have, in the general judgment of the world, tended to increase the admiration for Sherman's conduct, especially in the prudence of his movements at the opening of the campaign, when his own impulsive nature was held so carefully in check. The bold strategy of his final campaigns has by common acclaim been placed among classic examples of generalship.

The treatment of Gen. Schofield's own campaign against Hood in November of 1864 is very thorough in everything which pertains to his relations to Gen. Thomas. Here the whole subject was absolutely within the author's knowledge, and he has evidently made a most thorough compilation of every kind of evidence which may bear upon it. The special interest turns largely upon the fact that an unscrupulous effort was made to poison Thomas's mind against his principal subordinate. The chief actor in this plot seems to have been a man, always of a dubious personal reputation, who ended his career under a cloud on account of malversation in a revenue office of the government. How far Thomas was deceived into believing that Schofield was scheming against him may still be regarded an open question, but the assertions of those who were about him, and the publication of Van Horne's Life of Thomas, made it entirely proper that Schofield should give the matter the thorough treatment which he has given it in this memoir. The correspondence throughout the campaign is carefully analyzed, Schofield's own part as commander in the field is clearly defined and proved, the directions of the chief and the execution by the subordinate, with the extent and kind of responsibility of each, are all so fully and clearly marked out as to leave very little room for debate. While the author deeply regrets the apparent estrangement which was wrought in Gen. Thomas's mind, and regards the plot to bring it about as a criminal wrong to both, he gives strong evidence of his own continued admiration and regard for the character of his old chief.

From a strictly military point of view, the campaign of Franklin and Nashville is calmly criticised for the purpose of fixing its strong and weak points as matters of history. The author alludes with a touch of pathos to the fact that he is already an older man and an older officer than Thomas was when he died, and claims the indisputable right to review without constraint the portions of their career which were in common. We should all have felt that Gen. Schofield had come short of doing his duty to posterity if he had omitted to give us his frank and full judgment upon the events in which he bore so important and honorable a part.

Across the Everglades; A Canoe Journey of Exploration. By Hugh L. Willoughby. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1898. Pp. xii, 192 8vo, illustrated.

This journey was undertaken in order to explore that unknown portion of the Everglades into which the Seminole Indians were driven during the Indian war, and which was left unvisited by two previous expeditions; also, to examine the fauna and flora of the region in the interests of the University of Pennsylvania. It seems strange to learn, in these days of energetic exploration in all parts of the world, that we have, in one of our Atlantic Coast States, a tract 130 miles long and 70 miles wide which, until a year or two ago, was as much unknown to civilized man as the heart of Africa. It is bounded on the north by Lake Okeechobee, on the east by a strip of pine forest about six miles wide, facing the Atlantic, on the south by the mangrove swamps bordering the southern and southwestern shores of the peninsula, and on the west by the Big Cypress Swamp, which touches the western coast fronting the Gulf of Mexico.

The first journey of any length through any part of the Everglades was made by Major A. P. Williams in 1883, but resulted in no additions to cartography, as the record of the party on published maps is merely a general line from the Harney River to Lake Okeechobee. It is probable that no attempt was made at scientific surveying. In 1892 a party of more than twenty men under J. E. Ingraham followed an old Government trail from Myers, on the west coast, to the site of Fort Shackelford on the eastern edge of the Big Cypress Swamp. Thence, after many hardships, they succeeded in crossing to Miami in about two weeks, being piloted out of the maze by a Seminole Indian.

The author of this volume made an experimental trip across the eastern pine belt in 1896. Last year he took his outfit and supplies by vessel to the Harney River on the west coast behind the Ten Thousand Islands. This river is a small stream about five miles long, its upper part available only for canoe navigation. It forms one of the outlets for the surplus waters of the Everglades. Its bed is composed of limestone chemically precipitated from the fresh water and showing a more or less crystalline structure. From the head of the river Lieut. Willoughby started with two canoes and one companion in a northeasterly direction. Distances were measured by a light wheel lashed to the stern of the canoe, provided with paddles and a register showing the number of rotations—a method which proved fairly accurate. Astronomical observations were taken daily for position. A tongue-shaped tract of sawgrass necessitated a long détour to the southward, but the Miami was reached in safety, after a journey of some fifteen days. No specific dates are given in the text for particular days.

What, then, are the Everglades? The popular opinion has been that they are a vast tract of swamp, reeking with malaria and enclosing rich islands of higher ground reached by paths known only to the Seminoles, and where, it was surmised, the latter had rich plantations, orange groves, and herds of cattle. We learn from our author that this is all erroneous. The Everglades do not form a swamp in the ordinary acceptation of the term. They are more like a vast area of gently sloping rocky beach, over which the Okeechobee drainage, constantly in motion, moves steadily towards the sea. The water is pure and potable; as it is not

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stagnant, there are few mosquitoes, at least in the winter season. The author encountered no malaria, but reports the air as stimulating, with a winter temperature of 70 to 80 degrees Fahrenheit, pleasant and healthful. The water is everywhere shallow, varying from a couple of feet to as many inches, separated from the rock, which everywhere underlies it, by a coating of calcareous mud which in some places has a depth of six feet, and in others diminishes to nothing. The rock surface is curiously irregular, nubbly, and full of cavities. On the bottom grow grasses which impede the traveller. Where the mud is deep the dreaded "sawgrass" grows to a height of ten feet above the water, three-sided, with each angle armed with sharp recurved teeth which cut to the bone, making a jagged wound, long in healing. The thick sawgrass is impenetrable; it is easier to go twenty-five miles round than to get through a quarter of a mile of it. Islands are few and small, rising only a few inches above the water. Snakes are plentiful and large; panther, deer, otter, and other animals occur, but more plentifully near the edges of the tract. Birds are more numerous, especially the egret; and one bird, the Everglades kite, is peculiar to the region. Alligators are found, but not abundantly; fish and turtles are common, but difficult to catch in the maze of grasses. On the whole, it is a unique region, and the author's account of it is interesting and timely.

Lieut. Willoughby speaks of the Seminoles with respect and admiration; a hard-working, patient folk, who pride themselves on their truthfulness and desire only to be let alone, free from contact with the "lying white man." The book ends with a Seminole vocabulary of sixteen pages, rather crudely prepared, but which the philologist may find to contain some useful material. The volume bears evidence of unfamiliarity with bookmaking, but has numerous excellent illustrations and a good index. It succeeds fairly well in filling a notable gap in the geographic literature of our country.

Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Tome IV. 1600-1660. Tome V. 1661-1700. Paris: Armand Colin. 1897.

In accordance with expectation, each new volume of this work exceeds its predecessor in bulk. Fortunately the greater amplitude of treatment has resulted in making Volume IV. the ablest and most exhaustive yet published, while the character of the critical opinions expressed conforms more closely than ever to the intention as originally stated. To the editor (Prof. Petit de Julleville) have fallen two chapters, devoted respectively to seventeenth-century poets from Malherbe to Benserade, and the founding of the French Academy as introductory to the succeeding period of classicism. With most modern critics the treatment of the "official poet of the Bourbon dynasty" has been often so harsh that a partial rehabilitation of his fame is welcome, even though coupled with the admission that Malherbe's "laborious timidity" helped to stifle truly lyrical poetry in France for nearly two hundred years. It is but natural that the artless outpourings and the marked individuality of style in the work of Mathurin Régnier should appeal more strongly to a critic of to-day who strives to express the general feeling of his own time and generation. A similar remark applies to Théophile de Viau. Not the least pleasing feature of this chapter is its unsparing employment of illustrative quotation, which contributors to the earlier volumes might have done well to anticipate.

M. Bourciez furnishes a capital chapter on the Hôtel de Rambouillet, in which, taking a hint from M. Brunetière's well-known views, he dwells on the development of the social spirit in French literature as the outcome of the influence of that brilliant coterie; and though recognizing the triviality of much that filled their discussions, he seems to have summed up definitely the enduring worth of the movement in his last sentence: "Si quelques-uns y recueillèrent . . . des germes d'affectation, beaucoup y apprirent à penser délicatement et tous à bien dire." Fifty years ago it would have required some courage to express such an opinion, except under the protection of the academic roof; but we have at last learned to understand that Molière's immortal satire was directed less against the *précieuses* of Paris than at their awkward provincial imitators.

Our feeling for the critic (M. Rigal) whose weary task it was to judge the work of the initiators of the modern French drama (Hardy, Racan, Mairet, etc.) vanishes on discovering that his enthusiasm was strong enough to inspire him with the following bit of artless chauvinism: "À la lecture ses tragédies [those of Hardy], avec leurs changements de lieu, font l'effet de tragédies écrites par un Shakespeare . . . un peu timide et plus réservé." In this chapter the well-worn theme of the dramatic unities holds a prominent place, as indeed in other divisions of the volume, and on this point the various commentators appear refreshingly united as to the wholesomely restrictive effect of rules on individual tendencies towards vagaries in dramatic composition. From a literary point of view, it is hard to speak too highly of M. Jules Lemaître's entertaining treatment of Corneille—much the liveliest chapter in this volume—for, under the guise of irony much more gentle than is his wont, the writer conveys a series of opinions strikingly fresh and original. In the light of them the contemporary hostility to "Le Cid," which was by no means confined to Richelieu alone, nor indeed wholly instigated by his jealousy, grew out of an imperfectly realized conviction that that famous drama, with its theme of the triumph of "l'amour-passion," violates ordinary (*i. e.*, conventional) morality in its solution of a case which that morality had not foreseen. This distinguishes "Le Cid" both from all earlier plays of the seventeenth century and from the rest of Corneille's greater dramas, in which the will to do right invariably plays the determining part of the action. Despite the gravity of the situation, M. Lemaître's habit of literary curveting was too strong to be entirely overcome, though the exercise has been prudently relegated to the marginal security of a foot-note, in which we read that "Polyeucte nous rappelle à la fois Saint Paul, Jean Huss, Calvin, et le Prince Kropotkine"; and a few pages further on, the examination of "Théodore" held out an irresistible opportunity for a sly rap at Sardou.

Other chapters take up romances, memoirs, and philosophical works, the last occupying a space at least equal to their importance; but, in spite of somewhat elaborate subdivisions, we fail to find in the exposition of Cartesianism (MM. Hannequin and Thanin) such lucidity as characterizes M. Gazier's commentary on Pascal and Port Royal. It is possible that the metaphysical principles underlying the former do not admit, at least in such a semi-formal treatise as this, of a thoroughgoing treatment; and yet one might well give the average reader credit for the ability to follow an examination of Descartes's dualism in all its details, with the inevitable conclusion of its ultimate philosophical failure. Dealing with Pascal, M. Gazier dwells on the truly philosophical character of his scepticism, as distinguished from religious doubt; his dogmatic Christianity rests on pyrrhonism. It should, however, in fairness be admitted that no shuffling of terms can differentiate this attitude, so far as results are concerned, from that of the sentimental mystic. We must note, by the way, that the critic in this connection writes Oberland for Obermann; it is true that popular opinion connects both of these names with Switzerland, and thus it is all one.

The final chapter, on the internal history of the language, offers less interest than the corresponding divisions in earlier volumes, but not from any falling off in M. Brunot's method or manner. The age of Vaugelas and academic wranglings on the respective "nobility" of terms offers little even of historical interest to such as live in an age of journalism and reckless neologizing.

With the appearance of the fifth volume (1661-1700) "le Grand Siècle" is completed. So little remains to be said touching the great names of this period that the relatively conventional character of the judgments here rendered was all but a foregone conclusion. Boileau, La Fontaine, and Mme. de Sévigné are exalted as typically representative of French *esprit* and common sense. The treatment of the Bossuet-Fénelon quarrel, by two different hands, shows, nevertheless, much evenness, and confirms the prior conviction that the disagreement was one of temperament quite as much as of logical, or theological, conclusions. Strangely enough, the otherwise ample discussion of Molière omits all mention of his diction and style. In the case of Saint-Simon, his commentator appears to have been equally eager to emphasize the envious disposition of the man and to determine the enduring qualities of the writer. The difficulty of comparing, and yet contrasting, La Bruyère and La Rochefoucauld is met and overcome in the neat phrase which sets off the professional against the amateur. But the newest and consequently the most interesting element in this volume consists in the introduction of a long chapter by M. Rocheblave, which examines the æsthetic affinities of French art and letters during the seventeenth century, and demonstrates more cogently than ever the influence of political absolutism on both. We would say in conclusion that the attitude displayed in these volumes towards the great ecclesiastics and preachers of the time leads us to await with eagerness the coming pronouncements on the sceptical movement of the following century.

The Rod in India; being Hints how to Obtain Sport, and Remarks on the Natural History of Fish and their Culture, and Illustrations of Fishing Tackle. By Henry Sullivan Thomas, F.L.S.. 3d ed. London: W. Thacker & Co. 1897.

The first edition of this work was publish-

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ed in 1873, and the two succeeding ones both contain much new material in print and illustration. Though Mr. Thomas devotes a good deal of space to pisciculture, his book is chiefly for the angler, and is the only one of importance on Indian fishing. The mahseer, a member of the carp family, is the best known of the Indian fishes, and yields sport, when hooked, not at all inferior to that the salmon affords. He takes the fly much as a salmon does, "rising at it and descending quietly to his old place at the bottom till he feels the hook," and then his first rush is much more violent than a salmon's. "In spinning there is added yet another danger: the mahseer does not ordinarily take its fish quietly, as if it knew it would be unresisting like a puny fly, but seizes it with an angry blow that gives a sudden jerk to the line; it comes at the fish-bait with a swoop like a hawk, and, seizing it, passes swirling by at speed." His fighting qualities and strength, pound for pound, Mr. Thomas considers fully equal to those of the salmon, and, fished for with salmon tackle, the sport the mahseer yields is of the very finest, as in some of the large Indian rivers he attains a weight of 150 pounds or more, though these very large ones are seldom taken. Still, fish of 50 to 60 pounds are not at all uncommon, and on p. 399 an interesting account is given of the capture in the Poonch River of a 52-pounder which, by reason of a break in the reel, kept the angler busy for six hours before he was landed. Records of many days' fishing are given when bags of five to eighteen mahseer were made. The carnatic carp is also a sporting fish, resembling the chub in appearance, takes fly and bait, and reaches a weight of 20 to 25 pounds.

There are other fish in the streams of India, the murral, the fresh-water shark, and many more, but of all the mahseer is by far the most attractive to the angler. Like the salmon, he inhabits impetuous streams, is fished for in the same way and with the same tackle. Mr. Thomas says of him: "The mahseer shows more sport than the salmon; not that you can kill more of them, which you may also do, but that each individual mahseer makes a better fight than a salmon of the same size."

The illustrations of the book are capital and appropriate, and every information is given that is necessary to the man contemplating an angling trip to India.

Christian Greece and Living Greek. By Dr. Achilles Rose. New York: Peri Hellados Publication Office. 1898.

Perhaps the most tragic, and certainly the bitterest, result of the late collapse of Greece is that it has made her ridiculous. There was a time when the sorrows and wrongs of Greece eclipsed the gayety of nations. But though for Phil-Hellenes Hellas is still a bleeding martyr, crushed under the heel of the heartless "Concert of Europe," the cooler and more impartial verdict is that years of silence and reorganization from within are needed if she is to win back the emotional sympathy that she once shared with "Young Italy" and Poland. For the present, she lies under the suspicion of being absurd. She is so hopelessly shrouded in an atmosphere of ineffectiveness that even the recent murderous attempt on her King has proved a fiasco in the end. The civilized world had barely recovered from its thrill of horror when it learned that, out of six or eight shots aimed at some ten paces distance by two desperate assassins armed with terribly effective Gras rifles, one of these Gras bullets, "that will whistle through eighteen inches of solid oak," had hit but failed to break the carriage-lamp; and another had slightly marked but failed to wound the carriage horses, while the latter did not even play their part to the extent of taking fright, and so introducing an element of real danger. For this and other reasons it seems that the claims put forth by Dr. Achilles Rose in his book vaguely entitled 'Christian Greece and Living Greek' are ill-timed.

The Greek flag on the cover betrays its proselytizing aims. It would be unprofitable to criticise here vague rhapsodies over the glorious past of Greece by one who is obviously not a classical scholar. All sensible Phil-Hellenes who read Dr. Rose's still vaguer prophecies of the "glory of Greece" in the future, will share our regret for an opportunity of silence neglected, and our congratulations to Greeks that Dr. Rose is not a Greek, but a German. His book has a definite aim beyond the glorification of Greece and the vilification of "the Powers." It is a proposal for a universal language—an idea that is some centuries old, but it has been reserved for Dr. Rose to suggest that the medium best fitted for the purpose is modern Greek. Undeterred by previous failures in this line, or rather supporting himself by them, Dr. Rose points out the difficulties of a polyglot congress, and would solve them by the apparently simple plan of making all the members acquire a reading and speaking knowledge of yet another language than those that ordinarily come within their range. Scientific men who have hitherto regarded a working knowledge of French, German, and English as something of an achievement, will hardly hail with enthusiasm the prospect of such an addition to their repertory. But Dr. Rose meets this difficulty with his theory that, if classical Greek were taught "rationally" in schools and colleges, "the most perfect, the ideal language would speak for itself, and inspire scholars to unite in agitation for its general adoption" (p. 259).

Dr. Rose means, by "the perfect language," "Greek as she is spoke." It is no new contention that ancient Greek should be taught through its modern representative, and it has already been met by classical scholars with an almost perfect unanimity. The arguments of those who urge such a method are offensive to scholars because they are based on assumptions that have small foundation in fact. When Dr. Rose asserts (p. 243) that "the Greek language alone has preserved itself almost unchanged through thousands of years in its original beauty," he puts himself out of court. A language that has played fast and loose with its moods, prepositions, cases, and general syntax, which in the mouths of the people has passed into a dialect almost unrecognizable by one who is thoroughly familiar with classical Greek, cannot be said to be "almost unchanged." Dr. Rose is not explicit, and usually drops into rhetoric where one would fain have facts, but we may assume that the language he is offering to scholars as a medium is not the barbarous hybrid revived Greek of the newspapers—a jargon which a classical scholar reads with infinite disgust. One piece of reasoning in this work is so characteristic of Dr. Rose's grasp of the issues involved that we cannot forbear to quote it. He has been told by a malignant professor of classical Greek that it is not worth while to acquire modern Greek except for the purposes of the tourist, since "there is absolutely no modern literature worthy of the name." His answer is that there is now being constructed at Athens "a work of monumental grandeur belonging to the noblest of the literature [*sic*] of any country in the world" (p. 276). What is this literary masterpiece? A work on craniometry and anthropology embracing facts "collected in voluminous manuscripts which I have had the pleasure, the delight, to examine. . . . Is there any literary production in any country at the present time which is superior to this?" (p. 276). How is one to meet in argument a writer who deliberately regards material for the study of anthropology as literature?

Dr. Rose's judgments on the attitude of the Powers are simply beneath criticism. The statement that "the Greeks incurred the displeasure of the European governments by their revival of the Olympian games in 1896" (p. 286) is one that every intelligent Greek will repudiate. His suggestion for an international language may be left to its fate. The *lingua philosophica* of Leibnitz died too. The "Volapük of the Rev. Mr. Schleyer" perished likewise. To us the real weakness of Dr. Rose's book lies not so much in his rather foolish suggestion, but in the tone he assumes, and his inadequate knowledge, which on almost every page leads him into blunders. The Renaissance of the classics was inspired by Greeks. It is probable that we are now facing a revival of the Dark Ages in which science will play the rôle once sustained by religion in discrediting literature. But we shall not owe to Greeks the future renaissance of Greek unless they are encouraged to see their language and modern literature in their true proportions.

On p. 68, in "Joures"—" a second Aristophanes with a strong Shaksperian vein, who shows a considerable resemblance to Chaucer's tenderness of disposition" (!)—we imagine that we recognize Soures, the editor and writer of a witty and rather scurrilous little comic paper at Athens.

Astronomy. By Agnes M. Clerke, A. Fowler, and J. Ellard Gore. D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

So many able men have entered the contest to produce the best popular astronomy that the standard of excellence for such works is now very high. At the same time, they have, on the whole, as one after another has appeared since Herschel's 'Outlines,' been growing less and less intellectual. The present volume is not as sensational as those of Flammarion; it contains nothing calculated to terrify the reader, nor any scheme for communicating with inhabitants of Mars. Those particular varieties of silliness are not this year in fashion. We read, p. 404, "According to the Book of Enoch the constellations were already known and named in the time of that patriarch." Since everybody knows that the Book of Enoch is not even admitted into the Vulgate, a stronger impression of the antiquity of the constellations, which undoubtedly go back to the very beginnings of astronomy, could have

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been conveyed by mentioning that Alexander is said on good authority to have sent home from Babylon astronomical records going back to 2300 B. C.; and the "Phænomena" of the Macedonian poet Aratus, which, according to an ancient witness, depicts a globe, really describes the heavens as they were 2300 B. C. But this way of stating the minimum age of the constellations would not answer the purpose, because it supposes the reader to have sufficient logical power to follow an argument intelligently. There are no tables nor lists pretending to completeness (except that a list of the signs of the zodiac has been admitted, probably because the traditional methods of young ladies' academies make a good deal of signs of the zodiac); nor is there any attempt at summing up, or an account in any respect thorough of the present state of any branch of research. At the same time, the book reflects to-day's current opinions among English astronomers, and, touching most of the questions of descriptive astronomy now uppermost (and not too difficult), has its value, and will be used to advantage in schools of a certain character. There is no transcendental accuracy about the work in any particular.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Text-Book of Botany. Macmillan. $4.50.
Athey, H., and Bowers, A. H. With Gyves of Gold. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Bache, R. M. Life of Gen. George Gordon Meade. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $3.
Beaton, David. Selfhood and Service. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Bennet, W. H. The Old Testament Story. Retold for Young People. Macmillan. 60c.
Bernhardt, Wilhelm. German Composition. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Beyck, Ed. Bismarck. [Monographien zur Weltgeschichte.] Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Beyle, M. H. Red and Black: A Chronicle of the Nineteenth Century. 2 vols. G. H. Richmond & Son. $2.
Bourget, Paul. Antigone. Boston: L'Echo de la Semaine. 25c.
Bradlaugh, Charles. A Few Words about the Devil. Truth Seeker Co. 50c.
Brown, Alexander. The First Republic in America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50.
Bullock, Shan F. The Charmer: A Seaside Comedy. London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield. $1.50.
Burns. Selected Poems. American Book Co. 20c.
Burrow, C. K. The Fire of Life. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Bury, Yetta Blaze de. French Literature of To-day. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Byron's Prisoner of Chillon. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25c.
Cahan, Abraham. The Imported Bridegroom, and Other Stories of the New York Ghetto. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Capes, Bernard. The Lake of Wine. Appletons. $1.
Clowes, W. L. The Royal Navy. A History from the Earliest Times to the Present. Vols. I. and II. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cowles, J. L. A General Freight and Passenger Post. Putnams. $1.25.
Crane, Stephen. The Open Boat, and Other Tales of Adventure. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Crockett, S. R. The Standard-Bearer. Appletons. $1.50.
Crouch, A. P. Señorita Montenar. Harpers.
Davidson, Thomas. Rousseau, and Education according to Nature. [Great Educators.] Scribners. $1.
Dickens, Charles. Little Dorrit. 2 vols. Barnaby Rudge. 2 vols. Bleak House. 2 vols. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners. Each $1.50.
Directory of Directors in the City of New York. The Audit Co.
Ellis, E. S. A History of Our Country. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Essays of Elia. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Ferry, Jules. Discours et Opinions. Tome VII. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Gerard, Dorothea. A Forgotten Sin. Appletons. $1.
Graham, J. M. The Son of the Czar. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Harris, J. C. Tales of the Home Folks in Peace and War. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hickson, Prof. S. J. The Story of Life in the Seas. Appletons. 40c.
Hubbard, Elbert. As it Seems to Me. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Shop. $2.
Lord, Eleanor L. Industrial Experiments in the British Colonies of North America. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Macdowell, H. C. Henry of Guise, and Other Portraits. Macmillan. $2.75.
Magruder, Julia. A Realized Ideal. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Moses, Thomas. Half-Hours with the Christ. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Petrie, W. M. F. Religion and Conscience in Ancient Egypt. Scribners. $1.
Petrie, W. M. F. Syria and Egypt from the Tell el-Amarna Letters. Scribners. $1.
Reddaway, W. F. The Monroe Doctrine. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Roberts, A. W. Cæsar, Book I. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50c.
Rollin, H. J. Yetta Ségal. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Sanders, G. A. Reality; or, Law and Order vs. Anarchy and Socialism. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Sherwood, Mrs. M. E. W. Here and There and Everywhere. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Shoemaker, W. L. La Santa Yerba. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XXV. Index. London: B. F. Stevens.
Symonds, Margaret, and Gordon, Lina D. The Story of Perugia. [Mediæval Towns.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
The Rise and Fall of the United States. F. T. Neely.
Tilney, Robert. Gleanings from Poetic Fields. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston & Co. $1.
Villari, Prof. Pasquale. The Life and Times of Niccolo Machiavelli. Popular Edition. Scribners. $2.50.
Wallace, William. Robert Burns and Mrs. Dunlop. Correspondence now Published in Full for the First Time. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Walsh, Rev. W. P. Heroes of the Mission Field. 4th ed. Whittaker. $1.
Walsh, W. P. Modern Heroes of the Mission Field. 4th ed. Whittaker. $1.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. New Forms of Christian Education.
Ward, James. Historic Ornament. Vol. 2. Scribners. $3.
Watson, John. Companions of the Sorrowful Way. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75c.
Wiggin, Mrs. Kate D. Penelope's Progress. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Willoughby, W. F. Workingmen's Insurance. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Wordsworth. Selected Poems. American Book Co. 20c.
Wormeley, Katharine P. The Cruel Side of War. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Wylie, J. H. History of England under Henry the Fourth. Vol. IV. 1411-1413. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Zola, Emile. The Downfall (La Débâcle). Macmillan. $1.50.

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